

THE
ANALYTICAL REVIEW.

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VOYAGES. TRAVELS.

ART. I. *An Authentic Account of an Embassy from the King of Great Britain to the Emperor of China; including cursory Observations made, and Information obtained, in travelling through that ancient Empire, and a small Part of Chinese Tartary. Together with a Relation of the Voyage undertaken on the Occasion by His Majesty's Ship the Lion, and the Ship Hindostan, in the East India Company's Service, to the Yellow-Sea, and Gulf of Pekin; as well as of their return to Europe; with Notices of the several Places where they stopped in their Way out and home; being the Islands of Madeira, Teneriffe, and St. Jago; the Port of Rio de Janeiro in South America; the Islands of St. Helena, Tristan d'Acunha, and Amsterdam; the Coast of Java; and Sumatra, the Nanka Isles, Pulo Condore and Cochin China. Taken chiefly from the Papers of his Excellency the Earl of Macartney, Knight of the Bath, his Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the Emperor of China; Sir Erasmus Gower, Commander of the Expedition, and of other Gentlemen in the several Departments of the Embassy.* By Sir George Staunton, Baronet, Honorary Doctor of Laws of the University of Oxford, Fellow of the Royal Society of London, his Majesty's Secretary of Embassy to the Emperor of China, and Minister Plenipotentiary in the Absence of the Ambassador. In Two Volumes Quarto. 1144 p. with Vignettes, and a Folio Volume, containing 44 Maps and other Plates. Price 4l. 4s. in boards. Nicol. 1797.

CURIOSITY has never been more excited, or less gratified, than with respect to the ancient and extensive empire of China. This vast object has, for ages, been beheld by europeans with admiration, but at a distance too remote for accurate observation. The philosophical historian has contemplated a populous, regulated, and polished nation, of whose civil institutions, and moral habits and customs, he is unable to discover the origin: his imperfect information has represented this extraordinary people as differing, in many respects, from the hindoos, and other original inhabitants of Asia, without furnishing him with the means of discovering the causes of this difference.

The theologian has heard of ancient religious tenets and ceremonies, imperfectly described, which he in vain endeavours to trace back, as polluted streams, to a purer fountain. The naturalist has received a few additions to his collections of rare animals and plants, just sufficient to raise an impatient thirst for a more perfect acquaintance with the productions of a country, in so many respects different from every other. And the merchant having already profited largely by a partial and restricted intercourse with its inhabitants, earnestly wishes for a less fettered commerce.

In every view in which an undertaking of this kind can be considered, the late embassy to China reflects honour upon the public spirited projectors of the design, and upon those gentlemen by whom it has been executed: and, if the benefits immediately derived from it should not altogether answer the wishes or expectations of the public, the narrative of a voyage round half the globe, and of a visit to the capital of the largest empire, and most singular nation of the world, cannot but be highly interesting. Our principal business, on this occasion, will be to present our readers with such extracts, as may at once serve to afford them amusement and information: and such abundant stores, in both kinds, are provided by our very respectable and intelligent travellers, that, though we mean to take as wide a compass, as is consistent with other urgent demands upon our attention, we shall think right to be as concise as possible in our own remarks.

The work opens with an account of the occasion of the embassy, in which are stated, in minute detail, the reasons, arising from grievances suffered by the English at Canton, from the unfavourable impression made concerning them on the minds of the Chinese; and from the advantages, commercial and philosophical, to be expected from a more intimate connection with the Chinese empire. The preparations for the embassy are particularly related: extracts are made from His Majesty's private instructions to the ambassador, Lord Macartney, and from his letter to the emperor of China; and the reader is informed, that among the ambassador's suite, amounting to near a hundred persons, beside soldiers and servants, were Sir George Staunton, secretary of the embassy, Sir Erasmus Gower, commander of the Lion man of war of sixty-four guns, destined to the immediate service of the ambassador; Captain Mackintosh, commander of the Hindostan; Colonel Benson, commander of the military guard, assisted by Captain Parish, and Lieutenant Colonel Crewe; Dr. Gillan, a skilful physician; Dr. Scot, an experienced surgeon; Dr. Dinwiddie, and Mr. Barrow, conversant with mathematical sciences and arts; Mr. Maxwell and Mr. Winder, secretaries to the ambassador; Mr. Baring, a writer in the East India Company's service; and the ambassador's page, a youth who appears with distinction in the narrative, and who, though not mentioned by name, was, we are informed, a son of Sir G. S. Two Chinese, who had been resident at a college instituted at Naples for the education of young men brought from China by the missionaries, and who were well acquainted with the Italian and Latin languages, as well as the Chinese tongue, were engaged as interpreters.

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The Lion and Hindostan, having on board the embassador and his suite, set sail from Portsmouth, on the 26th of September, 1792, with the brigs, Jackall, Clarence, and Endeavour, and directed their course to the island of Madeira. During this and subsequent parts of the passage at sea, useful nautical observations, made by the commander, are introduced. At Madeira, the state of cultivation and trade, the military establishment, the volcanic appearances, with other particulars, interesting, if not altogether new, are noticed. The decline of religious bigotry in this island appears from the following relation:

VOL. I. P. 72.—⁴ The roman catholic clergy, observing the fervour of devotion slackened among the laity, to the degree of rendering it difficult to recruit their convents with proper subjects, were apt to attribute so alarming a decline of zeal to the propagation of free thinking among freemasons, and applied to the arm of the inquisition for their punishment and expulsion. A persecution ensued against many of the principal portuguese resident in Madeira, which was likely to be attended with very serious consequences, had not the present minister of foreign affairs at Lisbon, the chevalier de Pinto, a man of a liberal mind, and much in the confidence of the prince of Brazil, regent of the portuguese dominions during the indisposition of his mother, procured an edict, by which it was ordained, that “ all the inquisitors and judges of the tribunal of the inquisition should, as soon as any information were given to the said tribunal, immediately investigate the same ; and, when the culprit was in custody, should appoint advocates for the defence of the aforesaid culprit ; and whenever sentence should be pronounced against him, the proceedings should be sent, immediately, under cover, to the secretary of state, don Jose de Scabra, in order to be presented to the regent, that his highness might determine thereupon what he should think fit ; and that the proceedings should be so sent within two months after seizure of the culprit, it not being the regent's intention that any portuguese subject should suffer for years in a rigorous prison.”

The spirit that dictated this edict, as well as the provisions it contains, are found sufficient to arrest the tyranny of the inquisition. Nor is it upheld, as formerly, by the superstitious attachment of the people : even the women are said to be less religious. None have taken the veil in Madeira during the last twenty years. The influence of the portuguese clergy was formerly without bounds : they governed every private family. Something of this sway was still perceptible at the governor's entertainment, where a froward and drunken friar walked round the tables, commanding attention, and impertinently interfering, without interruption or reprimand.

At Teneriffe, a fatiguing and unsuccessful attempt was made to attain the summit of the Peak.

The island of St. Jago was found in a state of famine, little or no rain having fallen there for three years. As soon as the ships boats had landed, a ghastly figure, walking hastily along the shore, approached them. It was an english sailor, who had served on

board a dutch east indiaman, but had been left by some accident behind at St. Jago.

P. 127.—“ Tho he had not been long upon the island, he had already severely suffered by the general want. He had no occupation on shore. He had no money. Of the scanty stock of a common seaman’s clothes, the chief articles had quickly been exchanged for roots or any thing eatable, to support life. English ships that had called at Praya bay, since his arrival, refused to take him on board, on account of his having gone into foreign service. By a humane regulation of the british navy, every british sailor left in foreign ports by british ships, whether warlike or mercantile, is received on board any of his majesty’s ships which touch there. This poor man was in a predicament which deprived him of that resource.”

It is strange that in a philanthropic expedition, it should have been thought necessary, in obedience to a *humane* regulation, to violate *humanity*, by leaving a poor wretch to perish in a desolate island. In this island was observed a tree, called by the botanists *adansonia*, and in english, the monkey-bread tree, the trunk of which measured at the base *fifty-six* feet in girth, and afterwards divided into two great branches, one *forty-two* feet, the other *twenty-six* feet in circumference.

From the Cape Verd islands, the squadron passed across the Atlantic to the harbour of Rio de Janeiro, a place which has often been described. A curious account, too long to be copied, is given, by Mr. Barrow, of the cochineal insect, the plant on which it feeds, and the manner of preparing the dye. Directing their route from this place towards the indian ocean, they touched at the islands of Tristan d’Acunha and Amsterdam. In the latter island they found five men; two frenchmen, two british sailors, and their chief, named Perron, an intelligent frenchman, left for fifteen months upon the island, by a vessel to which they belonged, to provide a cargo of seal-skins for the Canton market. Boiling springs were found in this island, and a vast volcanic crater, considerably larger than that of Etna or Vesuvius.

According to Dr. Gillan,

P. 215.—“ This vast crater, according to the usual method of computing the antiquity of volcanoes, must have been formed at a very remote period. The lava all around its sides is much decomposed, and has mouldered into dust, which lies on the surface, in many parts, to a considerable depth. The decomposition has supplied a rich soil for the long grass, growing on the sides of the crater; and has even spread over most parts of the island. The fibrous roots of the grass, extending in all directions through the decomposed lava, and volcanic ashes, and mixed in a decaying state with the vegetable mold, produced from the annual putrefaction of the leaves and stalks, have formed a layer of soil, several feet deep, all over the island. But as it has nothing, except its own weight, to compress it together, it is of a light spongy texture, with very little cohesion, and, in many places, furrowed and intersected by the summer rains, and the torrents occasioned by the melting of the snow, which lies upon it, in the winter, from three

to four feet thick, in all those places where the subterraneous heat is not great enough to prevent its accumulation. In some parts these furrows and cavities are deeper than the level of the common channel. Hence they serve the purpose of small natural reservoirs. The water flows into them from all the neighbouring ground; and as their sides are shaded, and almost covered over by the leaves of the long grass, growing from their edges in opposite directions, the rays of the sun are excluded, and very little is lost by evaporation. These reservoirs, however, are very small, and but few in number; the largest could not contain more than three or four hogheads of water; and there is none else to be found, except in the springs on the sides of the large crater.

" The soil every where being light and spongy, and full of holes, formed in it by sea birds for nests, is very troublesome to walk upon; the foot breaks through the surface, and sinks deep at every step; a circumstance which renders the journey across the island uncommonly fatiguing, although it be scarcely three miles from the edge of the great crater to the opposite west side. There is one place, near the centre of the island, extending about two hundred yards in length, and somewhat less in breadth, where particular caution is necessary in walking over it. From this spot a hot fresh spring is supposed to derive its source, finding its way through the interstices of the lava to the great crater, and bursting out a little above the water covering its bottom. The heat in this upper spot is too great to admit of vegetation. The surface is covered with a kind of mud or paste, formed from the ashes, moistened by steam constantly rising from below. When the mud is removed, the vapour issues forth with violence, and in some parts copiously. This mud is so hot, that a gentleman who, inadvertently, stepped into it, had his foot severely scalded by it. The same causes, which have prevented vegetation on this spot, have had the same effect on the four cones recently thrown up. Their surfaces are covered with ashes only; nor is there the least appearance even of moss on the surrounding lava, for the production of which there does not appear to have elapsed a sufficient length of time since the cones were formed; but this is not the case with the lava of the great primary crater; for in those parts of it where the edges are more perpendicular, and where, consequently, the mouldering decomposed earth, having no basis to support it, slides down the sides of the rock, pretty long mounds was generally found growing upon it. All the springs or reservoirs of hot water, except one only, were brackish. One spring derives its source from the high ground, and ridges of the crater. The water in it, instead of boiling upwards through the stones and mud, as in the other springs, flows downward with a considerable velocity, in a small collected stream. Its temperature has been found not to exceed one hundred and twelve degrees. The hand could be easily kept in it for a considerable time. It is a pretty strong chalybeate. The sides of the rock whence it issues, and of the cavity into which it falls, are incrusted with ocre deposited from it. This is the water used by the seamen dwelling upon the island. They feel no inconvenience from its use; and habit has reconciled them

to its taste. When the great crater is viewed from the high ground, it appears to have been originally a perfect circle; but to have been encroached upon by the sea on the eastern side, where the flood tide strikes violently. The rocks of lava, which formed the edge of the crater on that side, have fallen down. The depth of the water in the crater is about one hundred and seventy feet, rendering the whole height of the crater, from the bottom to its upper ridge, nearly, if not quite, nine hundred feet. The lofty rocks, forming this ridge, are the highest parts of the island, which seem to have been originally produced by the melted lava, flowing down on all sides from hence. Thus there is a gradual slope from the edges of the crater to the sea: and the lava, tho' very irregular, and lying in mixed ruin and confusion immediately around the crater, assumes a more uniform appearance at some distance, layer resting regularly upon layer, with a gradual declivity the whole way down to the sea. This disposition of the layers is particularly observable in the west side, where they happen to terminate in an abrupt precipice. The eruptions that took place, at different periods, appear here distinctly marked by the different layers that are found with regular divisions between them, the glassy lava being undermost; the compact, next; the cellular lava next above; over it the volcanic ashes and lighter substances, and a layer of vegetable mold covering the whole."

It may be regretted that Dr. Gillan did not take the trouble to mention the *number* of layers, by which the different eruptions are so distinctly marked.

Upon the arrival of the ships at Batavia, the ambassador was received by the dutch government with distinguished honours, though his mission had created alarm. Many particulars are related of the unhealthy state of this city, and of the customs of the inhabitants. Among other things we are told, that in Batavia jet black is the favourite colour for the teeth, which are all painted black, except the two middle ones, which are covered with gold leaf.

The following is a description of batavian manners.

P. 258.—⁴ In several houses of note throughout the settlement the table is spread in the morning at an early hour: beside tea, coffee, and chocolate, fish and flesh are served for breakfast; which is no sooner over, than Madeira, claret, gin, dutch small beer, and english porter, are laid out in the portico before the door of the great hall, and pipes and tobacco presented to every guest, and a bright brabs jar placed before him to receive the phlegm which the tobacco frequently draws forth. This occupation continues sometimes, with little interruption, till near dinner time, which is about one o'clock in the afternoon. It is not very uncommon for one man to drink a bottle of wine in this manner before dinner. And those who have a predilection for the liquor of their own country, swallow several bottles of dutch small beer, which, they are told, dilutes their blood, and affords plenty of fluids for a free perspiration. Immediately before dinner, two men slaves go round with Madeira wine, of which each of the company takes a bumper, as a tonic or whetter of the appetite. Then follow three female slaves, one with a silver jar containing water, sometimes rose water,

to wash; a second with a silver basin and low cover of the same metal, pierced with holes, to receive the water after being used; and the third with towels for wiping the hands. During dinner a band of music plays at a little distance: the musicians are all slaves; and pains are taken to instruct them. A considerable number of female slaves attend at table, which is covered with a great variety of dishes; but little is received, except liquors, into stomachs already cloyed. Coffee immediately follows dinner. The twenty-four hours are here divided, as to the manner of living, into two days and two nights; for each person retires, soon after drinking coffee, to a bed, which consists of a matras, bolster, pillow, and chintz counterpane, but no sheets; and puts on his night dress, or muslin cap and loose long cotton gown. If a bachelor, which is the case of much the greatest number, a female slave attends to fan him while he sleeps. About six they rise, dress, drink tea, take an airing in their carriages, and form parties to spend the evening together to a late hour. The morning meetings consist generally of men, the ladies seldom choosing to appear till evening.

Few of these are natives of Europe, but many are descended from dutch settlers here; and are educated with some care. The features and outlines of their faces are european; but the complexion, character, and mode of life, approach more to those of the native inhabitants of Java. A pale languor overspreads the countenance, and not the least tint of rose is seen in any cheek. While in their own houses, they dress like their slaves, with a long red checkered cotton gown descending to the ankles, with large wide sleeves. They wear no head dress, but plait their hair, and fasten it with a silver bodkin on the top of the head, like the country girls in several cantons of Switzerland. The colour of their hair is almost universally black; they anoint it with the oil of the cocoa-nut, and adorn it with chaplets of flowers. When they go abroad to pay visits, or to take an airing in their carriages, and particularly when they go to their evening parties, they dress magnificently, in gold and silver spangled muslin robes, with a profusion of jewels in their hair, which, however, is worn without powder. They never attempt to mold or regulate the shape, by any fancied idea of elegance, or any standard of fashion; and, consequently, formed a striking contrast with such few ladies as were lately arrived from Holland, who had powdered hair and fair complexions, had contracted their waists with stays, wore large head dresses and hoops, and persevered in the early care of forcing back the elbows, chin, and shoulders. Every native lady is constantly attended by a female slave handsomely habited, who, as soon as her mistress is seated, sits at her feet before her, on the floor, holding in her hands her mistress's gold or silver box, divided into compartments, to contain areca nut, cardamom seeds, pepper, tobacco, and flaked lime; all which, mixed together in due proportions, and rolled within a leaf of betel, constitute a masticatory of a very pungent taste, and in general use. When, in the public assemblies, the ladies find the heat disagreeable, they retire to free themselves from their costly but inconvenient habits, and return, without

ceremony, in a more light and loose attire; when they are scarcely recognizable by strangers. The gentlemen follow the example, and throwing off their heavy and formal dresses, appear in white jackets, sometimes indeed adorned with diamond buttons. The elderly gentlemen quit their periwigs for night caps. Except in these moments, the members of this government have always combined their personal gratification, with the eastern policy of striking awe into vulgar minds, by the assumption of exterior and exclusive distinctions. They alone, for instance, appear abroad in crimson velvet. Their carriages are distinguished by peculiar ornaments. When met by others, the latter must stop, and pay homage to the former. One of the gates of the city is opened only to let them pass. They certainly succeed in supporting absolute sway over a vast superiority in number of the descendants of the original inhabitants of the country, as well as of the slaves imported into it, and of the Chinese attracted to it by the hope of gain; those classes, tho' healthy, active, and as if quite at home, readily obeying a few emaciated Europeans: such is the consequence of dominion once acquired; the prevalence of the mind over mere bodily exertions, and the effect of the combination of power against divided strength.'

Concerning the supposed upas, or poison-tree of Java, described by Foersch, and brought into notice in this country by Dr. Darwin, it is found upon inquiry, that the account is fabulous.

P. 272.—' Foersch had certainly been a surgeon for some time in Java, and had travelled into some parts of the interior of the country; but his relation of a tree so venomous as to be destructive, by its exhalations, at some miles distance, is compared there to the fictions of baron Munchausen, or as a bold attempt to impose upon the credulity of persons at a distance: yet as it was thought a discredit to the country to be suspected of producing a vegetable of so venomous a quality, a dutch dissertation has been written in refutation of the story. It appears from thence that information was requested, on the part of the dutch government of Batavia, from the javanese prince, in whose territories this dreadful vegetable was asserted to be growing; and that the prince, in his answer, denied any knowledge of such a production. Rumphius, indeed, a respectable author in natural history, of the last century, mentions a tree growing at Macassar, to which he gives the name of toxicaria; and relates that not only the red resin contained a deadly poison, but that the drops falling from the leaves upon the men employed in collecting this resin from the trunk, produced, unless they took particular care in covering their bodies, swellings and much illness; and that the exhalations from the tree were fatal to some small birds attempting to perch upon its branches. But many of the particulars of this account, however far removed from that of Foersch, are given not upon the author's own observation, and may have been exaggerated. It is a common opinion at Batavia that there exists, in that country, a vegetable poison, which, rubbed on the daggers of the javanese, renders the slightest wounds incurable; tho' some European practitioners have of late asserted, that they had cured persons

sions stabbed by those weapons ; but not without having taken the precaution of keeping the wound long open, and procuring a suppuration. One of the keepers of the medical garden at Batavia assured Dr. Gillan, that a tree distilling a poisonous juice was in that collection ; but that its qualities were kept secret from most people in the settlement, lest the knowledge of them should find its way to the slaves, who might be tempted to make an ill use of it. In the same medical garden, containing, it seems, hurtful, as well as grateful, substances, is found also the plant from whence is made the celebrated gout remedy, or moxa of Japan, mentioned in the works of sir William Temple ; it is nothing more than that species of the artemesia, hence called moxa, of Linnæus, which is converted, by a more easy process than would answer with other plants, into a kind of soft tinder, capable, when set on fire, of acting as a gentle caustic, and continuing to burn with an equal and moderate heat.'

From Batavia the squadron sailed across the equinoctial line to the island of Condore, where they found the inhabitants of Chinese origin. p. 312.

It was proposed to purchase provisions here ; and the people promised to have the specified quantity ready, if possible, the next day, when it was intended, if the weather should be favourable, to land the invalids. The next morning was fair in the beginning ; and a party of pleasure was made from the Hindostan to a small island close to Pulo Condore. They were scarcely arrived upon it when the weather began to lower ; and the boat set off on its return, in order to reach the ship before the impending storm should begin. But it overtook them before they got half-way. One of the company was a boy, whose father had been prevented by indisposition from being of the party, and was now anxiously looking, from the deck of the Hindostan, for the return of the boat. He perceived it sometimes above the waves ; and it sometimes disappeared behind them. The most indifferent spectator, if any could be indifferent, doubted whether the boat must not be overwhelmed in such a sea, as now suddenly was raised ; while the distracted parent was ardently wishing to be in the boat, as if his presence there could have allayed the tempest. The coxswain, or helmsman of the boat, guided it, however, with such address, keeping her bow steadily to the approaching wave, which otherwise must have filled and sunk her, that she reached the ship ; then, however, rolling so deeply, that the boat had again a narrow escape, from being sunk or dashed to pieces against the greater vessel's sides.'

From the manner in which this affecting incident is related, we conjecture, that the boy, who was in such imminent danger, was sir G. S.'s son.

Arriving at the harbour of Turon, in Cochin-china, the voyagers had an opportunity of observing several curious particulars in the manners of the inhabitants.

p. 337.—‘ At an entertainment, however, given by the chief of the place to a party from the ships, many of the dishes, or rather bowls, upon the table, were filled with pork and beef, cut into small

small square morsels, and dressed with a variety of savoury sauces; other bowls contained stewed fish, fowls, and ducks; and many had fruits and sweetmeats. The number of bowls, piled in three rows, one above the other, exceeded certainly an hundred. Before each person were placed boiled rice to serve instead of bread; and two porcupine quills, by way of a knife and fork. The spoons were made of porcelain, somewhat in the form of small shovels. After dinner an ardent spirit, made from rice, was served in small cups around. Wine does not seem to be in use, or known; tho vines are said to grow spontaneously in the mountains. Had the art of stopping the fermentation of vegetable juices, before they passed from the vinous state, been understood by them, it is probable that it would be, in most instances, preferred to distilled liquor, to the use of which this people seem to be much addicted. More of this cochin-chinese spirit, not ill resembling what is called, by the irish, whiskey, was drank by the host than by his guests; tho the former, by way of setting a good example, filled his cup to the brim, in a true european style of joviality, and, afterdrinking, turned up his cup, to shew he had emptied it to the bottom. He afterwards accompanied the gentlemen in a short walk, and conducted them to an occasional theatre, where a comedy had been ordered by him, upon the occasion, of which the mirth was excited, chiefly, as well as could be inferred from the gestures of the actors, by the peevishness of a passionate old man, and the humours of a clown, who appeared to have no small degree of merit in his way. The place was surrounded with crowds of people, and many of them perched upon the boughs of adjoining trees, from whence they might see, at an open part of the building, the spectators within doors, about whom they were, in this instance, more curious than about the actors upon the stage.

As the gentlemen were returning from this entertainment, they were requested, by signs, to stop while an aged lady, with some difficulty, walked from her house towards them. She had heard that europeans were passing by; and, not having before seen any, seemed anxious to take the opportunity, which might not offer again in her time. She approached them with looks of eager curiosity, but with much gentleness of manners, and a countenance implying a willingness to apologize for the freedom she took, to stop and gaze at them. She observed, with great attention, their figures, dres, and countenances, and appeared perfectly to enjoy a spectacle so new to her. She, at length, retired, signifying her thanks to the gentlemen for their complaisance, and with all the marks of satisfaction, at being gratified in one of the most ardent wishes remaining in her mind.

Those gentlemen's own attention was soon afterwards arrested, by a singular instance of agility, in some cochin-chinese young men. Seven or eight of them, standing in a circle, were engaged in a game of shuttlecock. They had in their hands no battledores. They did not employ the hand or arm, any way, in striking it. But, after taking a short race, and springing from the floor, they met the descending shuttlecock with the sole of the foot, and drove it up again, with force, high into the air. It was thus kept up a consider-

considerable time; the players seldom missing their stroke, or failing to give it the direction they intended. The shuttlecock was made of a piece of dried skin rolled round, and bound with strings. Into this skin were inserted three long feathers spreading out at top, but so near to each other, where they were stuck into the skin, as to pass through the holes, little more than a quarter of an inch square, which are always made in the centre of cochin-chinese copper coins. Two or three of these served as a weight at the bottom of the shuttlecock, and their sound gave notice to the players, when it was approaching to them.'

P. 348.—'The original inhabitants of Cochin-china had retired to the chain of mountains bordering upon it to the westward, and those which separate it from Cambodia, when the ancestors of the present possessors of the plains invaded the country from China, in like manner as the ancient britons, when attacked from Italy and Germany, betook themselves to the mountains of Wales. The mountaineers of Cochin-china are represented as a rude and savage people, differing by their coarse features and black complexions, as much as in their manners, from the well-looking and less dark complexioned lowlanders, who were considered as a courteous, affable, and inoffensive race, before the subversion of the ancient government, and mutual violence and treachery had loosened every principle of society, and roused the passions of avarice and ambition, which the convulsions of the country gave too many opportunities of indulging. The ancient simplicity of manners still, however, subsisted among the cultivators of the soil. The countenances of the peasants were, for the most part, lively and intelligent. The women, who were more numerous than the men, were actively employed in works of husbandry. Their cabins were clean and sufficiently commodious for a people whom the climate enables to spend, out of doors, most of the time not allotted to repose.

'Of rice, which is the most general object of cultivation, beside that species which requires to be sown in lands that are afterwards inundated, there is another known in Cochin-china, called sometimes mountain rice, which thrives in dry light soils mostly on the sides of hills, and opened by the spade, nor does it require more moisture than the usual rains and dews supply, neither of which is frequent at the seasons of its vegetation. Rice is of still more importance to this people, here, than bread is to Europeans, as the former require, with that grain, a very trifling relish of spices, oil, or animal food. Their principal indulgence is in spirituous liquors, tobacco, areca nut, and betel leaf; of the two last articles, mixed with a little paste of lime and water, they are extravagantly fond. These ingredients are obtained at easy rates, being produced upon the spot. Persons of both sexes, and of all ranks, chew the areca nut with betel, and smoke tobacco. A silken bag, suspended from the girdle, containing those ingredients in separate divisions, constitutes a necessary part of dress. Every man, who can afford it, is attended by a servant, whose office is to follow his master with his apparatus for smoking. The gentleman carries only a small case, or purse, for his areca nut and betel,

betel, generally flung over his shoulder, with an ornamented ribbon hanging down to his waist.

* The custom of smoking, to which the men are more addicted than the women, affords a sort of occupation that prevents the irksomeness of total inaction, without requiring exertion or occasioning fatigue. It is, therefore, often preferred to more useful, but laborious employment; and, except occasional efforts, made under particular circumstances, indolence was prevalent among the men; while the women were assiduously employed in domestic occupations, or in the labours of agriculture. In towns they served frequently as agents or brokers to merchants from foreign countries, living with them at the same time as their concubines; and, in both respects, they were remarkable for their fidelity. Concubinage was supposed to be no dishonour; and, in this instance, there seemed to be less difference in the morals of the two sexes than in Europe. The exterior differences between the sexes appeared also less glaring; for the dresses of both were nearly of the same form. They consisted of loose robes, with small collars round the neck, and folding over the breast, with large long sleeves, covering the hands. People of rank, especially the ladies, wore several of these gowns, one over the other. The undermost reached the ground; the succeeding ones were each shorter than that immediately under it. They were often of different colours, the display of which made a gaudy appearance as the wearer walked along. Linen was not known amongst them. They had, next the skin, vests and trowsers of slight silk or cotton. Turbans were frequently worn by the men; and hats, sometimes, by the women, but never caps. The most richly dressed of either sex used no shoes.

* In the dress of the europeans nothing attracted more the attention or admiration of the cochin-chinese than manufactured ornaments of polished steel. Steel hilted swords were vastly coveted by the military men. This class held the first rank in the country. Next came the judges; but the abuse of power in the former was not greater than in the latter; and among the several hardships, suffered by all classes, were the bad practices in the establishments intended for the administration of justice. Causes were tried, indeed, with much formality, and an apparent desire to find out the truth, in order to a fair decision; yet, in fact, a favourable decree was generally purchased by a bribe. Presents were accepted from both parties; but the richest was most likely to be successful.

* Among objects of natural curiosity accident led to the observation of some swarms of uncommon insects busily employed upon small branches of a shrub, then neither in fruit or flower, but in its general habit bearing somewhat the appearance of a privet. These insects, each not much exceeding the size of the domestic fly, were of a curious structure, having pectinated appendages rising in a curve, bending towards the head, not unlike the form of the tail feathers of the common fowl, but in the opposite direction. Every part of the insect was, in colour, of a perfect white, or at least completely covered with a white powder. The particular

cular stem, frequented by those insects, was entirely whitened by a substance or powder of that colour, strewed upon it by them. The annexed engraving will convey some idea of what is here very imperfectly described. The substance or powder was supposed to form the white wax of the east. This substance is asserted, on the spot, to have the property, by a particular manipulation, of giving, in certain proportions, with vegetable oil, such solidity to the composition as to render the whole equally capable of being molded into candles. The fact is ascertained, indeed, in some degree, by the simple experiment of dissolving one part of this wax in three parts of olive oil made hot. The whole, when cold, will coagulate into a mass, approaching to the firmness of bees' wax.'

Other interesting details are given concerning this country.

In their way towards the port of Tien-fing, in China, where the ambassador meant to land, the squadron touched at the Ladrone islands, and passed thence to Chu-fan. While they were among the Chu-fan islands a small party landed at the island Lowang.

P. 412.—Here 'the party fell in with a peasant who, tho' struck with their appearance, was not so scared by it as to shun them. He was dressed in loose garments of blue cotton, a straw hat upon his head fastened by a string under his chin, and half boots upon his legs. He seemed to enter into the spirit of curiosity, naturally animating travellers, and readily led them towards an adjoining village. Passing by a small farm house, they were invited into it by the tenant, who, together with his son, observed them with astonished eyes. The house was built of wood, the uprights of the natural form of the timber. No ceiling concealed the inside of the roof, which was put together strongly, and covered with the straw of rice. The floor was of earth beaten hard, and the partitions between the rooms consisted of mats hanging from the beams. Two spinning wheels for cotton were seen in the outer room; but the seats for the spinners were empty. They had probably been filled by females, who retired on the approach of strangers; while they remained, none of that sex appeared. Round the house were planted clusters of bamboo, and of that species of palm, of which each leaf resembles the form of a fan; and used as such, becomes an article of merchandize.'

'The return of the tide put an end to this visit to Lowang, of which place one of the natives said that it was so considerable, and so well peopled, as to contain near ten thousand inhabitants.'

Another party landing on the continent of China, near a promontory called Keeto-point, visited the city, or walled town of Ting-hai, of which the following account is given :

P. 419.—'The city walls were thirty feet high, and, like those of a large prison, overtopped the houses which they surrounded. Along the walls, at the distance of every hundred yards, were square stone towers. In the parapets were also embrasures, and holes in the merlons for archery; but there were no cannon, except a few old wrought-iron pieces near the gate. The gate was double; within which was a guard-house, where military men were stationed; and the bows and arrows, pikes, and matchlocks, orderly arranged, were, no doubt, intended for their use.'

• Of

• Of the towns of Europe, Ting-hai bore the resemblance most of Venice, but on a smaller scale. It was, in some degree, surrounded, as well as intersected, by canals. The bridges thrown over them were steep, and ascended by steps, like the Rialto. The streets, which were no more than alleys or narrow passages, were paved with square flat stones; but the houses, unlike the Venetian buildings, were low, and mostly of one story. The attention, as to ornament, in these buildings was confined chiefly to the roofs, which, besides having the tiles that cover the rafters luted and plastered over, to prevent accidents from their falling in stormy weather, were contrived in such a form as to imitate the inward bend of the ridges and sides of canvas tents, or of the coverings of skins of animals or other flexible materials, effected by their weight; a form preferred, perhaps, after the introduction of more solid materials, in allusion to the modes of shelter to which the human race had, probably, recourse before the erection of regular dwelling houses. On the ridges of the roofs were uncouth figures of animals, and other decorations in clay, stone, or iron. The town was full of shops, containing, chiefly, articles of clothing, food, and furniture, displayed to full advantage. Even coffins were painted in a variety of lively and contrasting colours. The smaller quadrupeds, including dogs, intended for food, were, as well as poultry, exposed alive for sale, as were fish in tubs of water, and eels in sand. The number of places where tin-leaf, and sticks of odoriferous wood were sold, for burning in their temples, indicated no slight degree of superstitious disposition in the people. Loose garments and trowsers were worn by both sexes; but the men had hats of straw or cane which covered the head, their hair, except one long lock, being cut short or shaved; while the women had theirs entire, and plaited and coiled, becomingly, into a knot upon the crown of the head, as is sometimes seen on the female statues of antiquity.

• Throughout the place there was an appearance of quick and active industry, beyond the natural effect of a climate not quite thirty degrees from the equator: a circumstance which implied the stimulus of necessity compelling, or of reward exciting, to labour. None seemed to shun it. None asked alms. Men only were passing busily through the streets. Women were seen, chiefly, in the shops, and at their doors and windows.

• Of most of the latter, even in the middle and inferior classes, the feet were unnaturally small, or rather truncated. They appeared as if the fore part of the foot had been accidentally cut off, leaving the remainder of the usual size, and bandaged like the stump of an amputated limb. They undergo, indeed, much torment, and cripple themselves in great measure, in imitation of ladies of higher rank, among whom it is there the custom to stop, by pressure, the growth of the ankle as well as foot from the earliest infancy; and leaving the great toe in its natural position, forcibly to bend the others, and retain them under the foot, till at length they adhere to, as if buried in the sole, and can no more be separated.'

• Some

P. 423.—⁴ Some of the very lowest classes of the Chinese, of a race confined chiefly to the mountains and remote places, have not adopted this unnatural custom. But the females of this class are held by the rest in the utmost degree of contempt, and are employed only in the most menial domestic offices. So inveterate is the custom, which gives pre-eminence to mutilated before perfect limbs, that the interpreter averred, and every subsequent information confirmed the assertion, that if, of two sisters, otherwise every way equal, the one had thus been maimed, while nature was suffered to make its usual progress in the other, the latter would be considered as in an abject state, unworthy of associating with the rest of the family, and doomed to perpetual obscurity, and the drudgery of servitude.'

P. 435.—⁴ During the stay of the Clarence in Chu-san harbour, one of the persons who came in her was seized with a violent cholera morbus, in consequence of eating too freely of some acid fruit he had found on shore. As no medical gentleman, nor any medicines happened to be on board, inquiries were made immediately for a Chinese physician to administer, at least, some momentary relief to the patient, then labouring under excruciating torments. A physician soon arrived; who, without asking any questions about the symptoms or origin of the complaint, with great solemnity felt the pulse of the left arm of his patient, by applying gently his four fingers to it; then raising one of them, he continued to press with the other three, afterwards with two, and, at last, with only one, moving his hand for several minutes backwards and forwards along the wrist, as if upon the keys of a harpsichord, as far towards the elbow as the pulse could be distinguished. He remained the whole time silent, with eyes fixed, but not upon the patient, and acting as if he considered every distinct disease to be attended with a pulsation of the artery peculiar to itself, and distinguishable by an attentive practitioner. He pronounced the present complaint to arise from the stomach, as indeed was obvious from the symptoms, of which it is very probable he had information before he came; and which soon yielded to appropriate medicines, supplied, at the patient's request, by him:

The squadron now lying at anchor in a harbour not far from the mouth of the river Pei-ho, which comes from Tien-sing,

P. 484.—⁴ Several Chinese vessels appeared with live-stock, fruit, and other vegetables in such profusion that the ships could only contain a part, and the overplus was necessarily sent back. It may not be uninteresting to see the list of what was sent at once. Twenty bullocks, one hundred and twenty sheep, one hundred and twenty hogs, one hundred fowls, one hundred ducks, one hundred and sixty bags of flour, fourteen chests of bread, one hundred and sixty bags of common rice, ten chests of red rice, ten chests of white rice, ten chests of small rice, ten chests of tea, twenty-two boxes of dried peaches, twenty-two boxes of fruit preserved with sugar, twenty-two chests of plums and apples, twenty-two boxes of ochras, twenty-two boxes of other vegetables, forty baskets of large cucumbers, one thousand squashes, forty bundles of lettuce, twenty measures of peas in pods, one thousand water melons, three thousand

thousand musk melons, besides a few jars of sweet wine and spirituous liquors; together with ten chests of candles, and three baskets of porcelaine. In the same plentiful and gratuitous manner were provisions constantly supplied, without waiting for being demanded. The hospitality, and indeed the attentions of every other kind, which the embassy and squadron experienced on all occasions, particularly at Turon bay, Chu-san, Ten-choo-foo, and here, were such as strangers seldom meet, except in the eastern parts of the world.'

Two mandarins of rank, appointed by the court, one in the military, and one in the civil service, with a numerous train of attendants, came to pay their respects to the ambassador. In the interview, these mandarins were particularly solicitous to inquire concerning the presents brought for the emperor. A description of them, drawn up in the oriental style, had been translated into latin and chinese, and was communicated to the officers. From this paper, of which a large extract is given, it appears, that the principal articles were, an orrery, a reflecting telescope, an armillary sphere, a pair of globes, time pieces, an air pump, an instrument for illustrating the mechanical powers, field pieces and arms, a model of a large man of war, large lenses, magnificent lustres, prints, specimens of manufactures, &c.

During the residence of the ambassador in China, sir Erasmus Gower undertook to make an excursion to Japan, and other parts of these eastern regions. The ambassador's instructions to the commander are given at length. Quitting the Lion and Hindostan, the ambassador, and gentlemen of the embassy, embarked on board the Clarence, Jackall, and Endeavour brigs, for the Pei-ho river, on the 5th of august, 1793.

Having thus accompanied the voyagers almost within sight of the city of Pekin, and the narrator to the end of his first volume, we must for the present take our leave.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Sketches and Observations made on a Tour through various Parts of Europe, in the Years 1792, 1793, and 1794.* 8vo. 387 pages. Price 6s. in boards. Conder. 1797.

OUR traveller sets out from Harwich to the United Provinces, and lands at the beautiful and commercial city of Rotterdam. He visits the Hague, Leyden, Amsterdam, Haerlem, and other places; gives an account of what seemed most remarkable in manners and customs; sets off for Nimeguen, and travels onward to Cleves, Cologne, Bonn, Coblenz, and Frankfort; whence he makes excursions to Leipsic, and other places. From Dusseldorf he passes by the way of Duisburg and Wesel to Brussels; and thence to Antwerp, Ghent, and other places of note in the austrian Netherlands. By the route of Liege and Aix-la-Chapelle he returns into Germany; passes through Cologne, Mentz, Frankfort, Leipsic, Dresden, Prague, and other places, to Vienna; and thence to Triest, of which we have heard so much in the course of the present war, a city that, very naturally, attracted an uncommon share of his attention.

P. 102.—“Triest is a large city, finely situated on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, backed by the mountains of Istria. Few places that I have ever visited are more delectably situated than Triest, and scarcely any one have I reached with equal pleasure. It was about an hour before midnight when I had gained the summit of one of those mountains, which command a full view of the Adriatic, with Triest at its foot upon the distant shore. The moon shone bright, and I enjoyed a triumph, of which those can have little idea, who have never made the tour of Germany; I mean, at viewing the spot which is to terminate the fatigues and sufferings of travelling in that country.

“Triest, being seated on the borders of Dalmatia, and not far removed from Greece, partakes, as may be supposed, much of eastern appearance and manners. The number of greek characters, to one educated like myself, in a part of Europe so very remote, was particularly interesting, and no city that I have ever visited, so fully exemplifies the scripture phrase, of persons of “every kindred, and tongue, and nation,” which this incloses within it’s walls.”

The following anecdote of the austrian subjects, inhabitants of the countries that lie towards the Adriatic, is characteristical of the easy and familiar style of our traveller, in his observations as well as in his dictioin.

P. 101.—“Lest any of my countrymen should claim to themselves the honour of having invented the gallows, that are so universally worn at present, I hereby give you full power and authority to inform them, that the inhabitants of Carinthia, Carniola, and Stiria, have a prior claim; as this same invention has been known to them and their ancestors, time immemorial; there being in these parts scarcely a peasant without his gallows.”

In p. 108, and downwards, we have a very interesting and affecting account of a young monk, an englishman, which shows, if it be true, that the utmost stretch of human imagination, employed in the ideal fabrication of pathetic situations and scenes, is sometimes equalled by the actual economy of nature. At Furina, a beautiful situation on the dalmatian shore, where our author arrived from Triest in a venetian galley, he met with a young monk belonging to the convent of St. Francis.

P. 111.—“As you, sir, [said the young religious] are the first of my countrymen whom I have ever seen on this sequestered shore, and as you certainly will be the last, I cannot help asking of you a confidence, which my situation and misfortunes claim. This, however, I should not have done, if I had not thought, (for in the chapel, sir, I watched you narrowly, and perhaps rudely,) if I had not thought, from some things which dropped from your lips, that your heart was not wholly a stranger to the sympathies and sufferings of humanity.” I thanked him for the compliment paid me; he said he did not intend it as such: he then took from his pocket a little cross, which he begged me to kiss, not, as he said, to evince a want of confidence, but to give a greater sacredness to what he was going to reveal to me. He then proceeded nearly as follows:

“The opportunity which now presents itself, of disclosing my unfortunate history, I have the highest reason to rejoice in; and as

I find that my end is very fast approaching, I shall do it with the utmost unreserve, only requesting that it may remain faithfully deposited in your breast, till six months are past, by which time the voice that now addresses you will be forever silent.

" I am of an antient and respectable family in the north of England; my parents dying during my infancy, the charge of myself, and an only sister, devolved on an uncle, whose residence is on the banks of one of the lakes.

" After having been some years at Eton, I was sent to college, where I contracted an intimacy with a young fellow, who, though not of equal birth or expectations with myself, yet possessed qualities so dear to my heart, that we became constant and inseparable companions. His name is Harry T——. After having passed some years together at college, in the most perfect friendship, I solicited and procured of my uncle, the living of P——dale for my friend, his natural pensiveness, as well as his want of fortune, having inclined him to the church. We retired from college together; Harry to his living at P——dale, and myself to the beautiful mansion of my uncle, situated about four miles distant, on the opposite shore of the lake. Harry's household consisted of himself, a widowed mother, and a lovely sister whose name was Harriet: (here the stranger sighed) our family was composed of my uncle, my sister Amelia, and myself.

" Our time was principally passed in each other's society, either in parties upon the lake, or among the delightful scenery which surrounded the mansion of my uncle. In a situation so favourable to the nurture of the tender passion, and with a heart by no means a stranger to the sensibilities of life, it is not surprising that I became enamoured of the lovely sister of my friend, or that Harry should not be insensible to the attractions of Amelia. As we concealed nothing from each other, our mutual feelings, on a subject which so much interested us both, were most freely communicated. The communication, if possible, cemented our friendship still closer, and rendered our parties on the lake, and our rambles in the woods, still more interesting. On mentioning to my uncle my attachment to Harriet, he, with a nobleness natural to his character, applauded my choice; but, as he destined me to be the heir to his great estate, he, previous to my settling in life, wished me to make the tour of Europe, that I might enrich my mind with every thing worthy the pursuit of a gentleman and a scholar, so as to qualify me to enjoy, with elegant delight, the retirement of which I was so fond.

" Won by the generosity of his motives, and inspired with an ardent desire of visiting those remains of antient art, which Italy presents to the enquiring mind, I prepared for my tour. I scarcely dared, however, to communicate my intentions to Harriet; and the last evening we passed together, was too convincing a proof of the extreme sensibility with which it impressed her heart. It was on the lake with Harry and my sister Amelia.

" The last words of Harriet still vibrate in my ear at this distant moment. When I handed her from the boat to the shore, she pressed my hand with tenderness, and with the emphatic solemnity of a departing spirit, faintly articulated, " Remember me." The looks which

which accompanied these words, are scarcely ever absent from my imagination."

Harriet was cut off by an early and accidental death; and her lover took shelter in the solitude and devotion of a convent.

From Venice, the singularities of which are described, our author made several excursions into the neighbouring regions; and afterwards continued his journey by Ferrara, Bologna, and across the Appenines, to Florence; and thence, by Sienna, Montefiascone, Bolsano, and Viterbo, to Rome.

‘ As he was walking at the gate of the Farnese palace, (p. 192,) a child, about seven years old, who happened to be passing, had occasion to stop at the gate, to tie up her garter. Her hair was full dressed and powdered. She had on a deep veil, and a large fan in her hand. Her womanly appearance induced Mr. S. to remark to me, the early maturity of females in this country, compared with those in a more northern climate. As soon as the little gipsy turned round, and observed us to notice her, she reclined her head on one shoulder, and, with a look of wickedness that could not have been surpassed by the most hacknied of the cyprian tribe, ran off, exclaiming, “ *Non c'e niente di vedere la signori!* ” As the little creature was too much of a child, for our attention to have been at all attracted towards her garter, my friend, at this speech, expressed the utmost astonishment; and, as he is a great enquirer into causes and effects, he declared he would spend another month in Rome, to investigate the cause, why both vegetable and animal nature, should ripen earlier in Italy, than in most other countries of Europe.’

Our traveller, having visited Naples and its vicinity, Puzzuoli, Baiae, Pisa, and other places in Italy, set sail from Leghorn for Cadiz, and thence to Lisbon.

This is the line of the travels before us. It is various and extensive: and, although it cannot be affirmed that we find much novelty of information, our attention is kept up by the rapidity of the march; we are not disgusted either by weakness or affectation, but satisfied with the justness as well as candour of the author's remarks, and pleased with his ease and good humour. Instead of snarling at fellow-travellers, as some do, he quotes them very often, and always with unreserved approbation; Mr. Dupaty, Dr. Cogan, Dr. Moore, Mrs. Piozzi, the chevalier de Bourgoanne, &c. This conduct is equally proper in a writer, who is supposed to be acquainted with those who have trodden the same paths before him, and becoming a gentleman: it is in direct contrast with that of many travellers, and particularly of some of those whom he has quoted; who swell their volumes not only with the remarks of other travellers, unacknowledged, but also with extracts from histories also equally unavowed.

H. H.

HISTORY.

ART. III. *The History of the Reign of George the Third, King of Great Britain, &c. from the Conclusion of the seventh Session of the sixteenth Parliament, in 1790, to the End of the sixth Session of the seventeenth Parliament*

Parliament of Great Britain, in 1796. By Robert Macfarlan, Esq. Vol. 4th. 8vo. 649 pages. Price 9s. in boards. Evans. 1796.

IN our review of the third volume of Mr. Macfarlan's history, [see Analytical Review, Vol. xx, p. 468] we gave it as our opinion, that the work was conducted with ability, and that the principles inculcated were those, which have hitherto formed the pride and security of Englishmen: the former part of this commendation equally applies to the volume before us, but we are sorry to hesitate in the application of the latter. Mr. M., whose former productions breathed the spirit of liberty, intimidated at the atrocities which were committed in a neighbouring country under the banners of a bastard freedom, seems to be so apprehensive that similar scenes of horror may desolate our own, that he regards an opposition to the encroachments of ministerial despotism as the signal for plunder, and the alarmbell of confusion. Our author, in what he calls 'a kind of fallusian preface,' endeavours to refute an opinion of considerable currency, that a writer cannot compose a good history of his own times; that he is likely to be uninformed, and partial to a favourite class of statesmen. 'If the charge of prejudice and partiality,' says he, 'be allowed any degree of validity, what would become of the best historians, Sallust and Tacitus, who wrote the histories of their own age?' The possibility of writing an impartial history of the events which are passing before us will, perhaps, be admitted; but Mr. M.'s own volume affords an additional instance of the improbability that such will be the case, since himself, though aware of temptation, has yet fallen into it. A very considerable portion of this volume is devoted to the history of the French revolution; in our opinion a great deal too much of it; so far as continental politics had relation to the politics of Great Britain, no doubt it was necessary to discuss them, but we cannot discover the least occasion why our author should have entered into so copious a detail of the circumstances which preceded the revolution, attended its origin, and every stage of its progress. Mr. M. expresses his wish 'to approach in history, if he cannot reach, the standard of antiquity.' With respect to style, far from approaching the standard of antiquity, he is surpassed by many a modern: the style of a historian should be easy and unaffected, clear and dignified, never impetuous, never intemperate. What should we think of Dr. Robertson, had he heaped half the Billingsgate abuse on the counsellors of Charles, or Francis, which Mr. M. has done on several existing characters in France and England? How would he have degraded himself in our estimation! Chauvelin, the late French ambassador, is said, by our author, to have 'remained in London to serve as a focus to collect the scattered rays of sedition, and to furnish incendiaries with fuel.' Barrere is called 'the mouth-piece to the committee of public safety, and liar-general to the convention;' Norfolk, and other peers, are said to have cropped their own hair, 'as if they meant to resemble the French blackguards;' on objecting to a loan, the opposition are called 'croaking ravens;' and speaking of Burke's various philippics against Hastings, 'it is hardly doubtful,' says our author, 'that if the large and welcome sop had been thrown to him (Burke) ten years ago, by which

which he has been recently lulled—it would greatly have abated the venom of his cerbereal slaver.'

After these specimens of vulgarity, to which we might have added a great many more, we leave our readers to form their own opinion as to the success, which has attended Mr. M.'s wish 'to approach in history, if he cannot reach, the standard of antiquity.'

The present volume opens with a sketch of the character and eloquence of the two chiefs in parliament, around whose antagonist banners the unequal forces of ministry and opposition range. This sketch we shall offer to the perusal of our readers: p. 8.

' The minister, William Pitt, it is true, was in years only young, but in wisdom mature, being, as North justly observed, *born a minister*, and in Barré's words, a man of *splendid eloquence*. However vain the art of physiognomy may have been proved by experience, men will always be prejudiced in favour of certain lineaments of face and proportions of limbs; and an imposing countenance and graceful person will always be deemed the best introductory recommendations. Nature, who having many to gratify can seldom lavish all her gifts on an individual, has been sparing to Pitt of bodily accomplishments; for his visage is rather boyish and unexpressive; and his lank person conveys the idea of feebleness and languor more than of firmness and vigour; but, like Ulysses, he soon obliterates these unfavourable impressions, when his big manly voice issues from his breast, and compels his audience to think no longer of his figure and look, but of his wisdom and eloquence. Clear, comprehensive, and dignified in argument, he never loses sight of his subject, never indulges any idle fancies of the imagination, nor amuses his hearers with meretricious ornaments fitter for a school of declamation than for a senate. His powers of amplification, it must be owned, are wonderful, and like those of the Roman orator must excite the envy of his distanced rivals; and, accordingly, they accuse him of enveloping his sentiments in such a cloud of words that his meaning is not discernible. But how can this charge be sustained, when the same antagonists acknowledge his superior eminence for lucid order, sententious periods, and sarcastic replies? His clearness of conception is evinced by method and arrangement in hasty as well as pre-meditated efforts. In a studied harangue and in an extemporal speech the stream of his eloquence flows with the same uninterrupted current, except that, where obstacles occur, it is forcible, vehement, and irresistible; and that, where the channel is clear, it is grand and majestic. The speeches of other senators come often mended from the reporter's pen, but Pitt's always marred; because his sentiments are so noble and his expressions so apposite, that to sketch a faint picture of them requires, what will hardly ever be found, a mind of as much elevation and refinement as his own. In glowing expressions, in the lightening of speech, in those electric strokes, which blast like the fire of heaven, Pitt may not *yet* equal his father, but in extent of political knowledge, in acquaintance with law and the constitution, and in the mystery of finance, he may fairly claim a superiority. When to the advantages of a happy genius, of the instructions of the speeches and of the example of the late earl of Chatham, we add the good fortune of the manliest and most commanding voice in either

either house of parliament, we need not be surprised at the power of his oratory; especially, when it is considered that envy and malice, which are ever so eager to depress the exalted, have not been able to fix a single stain upon his character. Having by a fortunate concurrence of circumstances become prime minister, before the acceptance of a subordinate station which he publickly disclaimed, and its general consequence, a connection with different parties, could furnish calumny with a plea for stigmatising him as a faithless deserter or an unprincipled apostate, Pitt commenced his course pure and untainted, and still remains uncontaminated in spite of the artifices and calumnies of his active and able competitors. After introducing order into the deranged state of the finances, after annihilating the pernicious practice of smuggling, concluding a beneficial treaty of commerce with France, adding several millions annually to the revenue, and establishing a fund for the gradual liquidation of the national debt; after severing Holland from France and attaching her to Great Britain, after maintaining the honour and interest of the publick in the dispute with Spain, after supporting the character and enlarging the commerce of his country abroad, and extending by various regulations her trade at home, it might be reasonably presumed that the minister still enjoyed the full confidence of the nation; and the divisions in both houses in favour of his measures soon justified the presumption.

The minister's competitor and the principal leader of the ousted, and therefore adverse, party, was Charles James Fox, now returned a second time member for Westminster, a gentleman long distinguished by his admirable talents for debate. Designed from the first dawn of genius as well as the present lord of the ascendant, for the senate, Fox was trained to argumentation and oratory by his father, who was himself no mean orator, and the proprietor of a rotten borough, which he bequeathed to his son, as a certain resource, if his own abilities and exertions should not ensure him a seat in parliament. The father having laboured under the disadvantage of being styled by London in a remonstrance to the king the defaulter of unaccounted millions, the son was upon his early appearance in the house of commons eyed with suspicion, which his youthful indiscretion did not diminish; as the waste of private is but an indifferent recommendation to the care of publick property. Countenanced however as Fox has been by great and respectable characters, it is but charity to suppose that his follies did not exceed the limits prescribed by honour, and that versatility and inconsistency are not held dishonourable in a statesman; since, in the course of a few months he was the vigorous champion and violent assailant of North, first the virulent enemy of the rights of election in the case of Wilkes, next the man of the people in all constitutional questions; now, threatening to impeach as an evil counsellor, now hastening to form a coalition with the minister, whom he accused of having dismembered the empire, and with whom he once declared there could be no safety under the same roof. These deviations from principles and professions this conspicuous man has had frequent opportunities of displaying as a senator, but few as a minister; for the duration of the coalition was so short that no measure of much consequence came to

to light but the East India bill, which has been marked with the complete disapprobation of the publick as an unconstitutional invasion of chartered rights. This luminary, whose complexion is swarthy, eye piercing and figure squalid, is in his person robust, athletick and masculine; but, though once active, he is now heavy and corpulent, and was some years ago threatened with somnolence, which might have terminated in a lethargy, had he not been roused into action by the ancient rivalry between the houses of Pitt and Fox, and ashamed to allow a young and unexperienced racer to walk over the course, which he had so long tred without a match. With a shrill and harsh but piercing and impressive voice, with a rapid but distinct utterance, Fox never failed to engage the attention of his auditors, though he could not often communicate to them the heat which he felt in his own breast, as from the quick succession of his crowded ideas he became suddenly agitated and impassioned, before he could raise in them correspondent emotions; and his long pauses for recollection at the close of each argument interrupted the current of passion and weakened the general effect. The repetition too of the last words of a sentence, to catch the first words of the next, gave this orator's premeditated speeches too much the air of study and scholastic artifice, and belied the assertions of those, who pretend in spite of his own serious declarations that all his effusions are extemporary. In extemporary effusions, however, it is that his native eloquence shines most conspicuous, being then frequently argumentative, perspicuous, and energetick, full of new matter and unexpected ideas, of pointed observations and happy allusions. In short, he is a better debater than an orator, better calculated for the captious disputation of the bar than for the candid direction of a popular assembly, in which success depends much not only upon being good, but also upon being thought good. Careless and negligent in his dress he discovers the same carelessness and negligence in his style, having, it seems, been prevented by dissipation from attending habitually to the structure of a sentence, as well as to the arrangement of a speech, and by this defect missing what he would otherwise justly deserve, the name of the British Demosthenes, no less than his happier rival merits the title of the British Cicero. Fox's reasoning is sometimes circuitous and sophistical, Pitt's always direct and fair; the former is an exact, the latter a great painter; the one by detailing minute particulars and leaving nothing unsaid is, though never frigid, occasionally tedious; the other by grouping the strong and prominent features of a question generally interests, and never tires. Fox's scream on hearing the animating cry of his party, reminds us of the hawk darting rapidly at his quarry; and his antagonist's voice of the sounding course of the eagle rushing in his might to pounce the writhing and reluctant dragon.

Some of our readers may have studied the valuable, but ominous tracts on finance, which have been published by Mr. William Morgan and lord Lauderdale: it may excite a smile in them—perhaps too, a smile of contempt—to hear Mr. Pitt extolled as a financier: no one, however, will be surprised at our author's repelling the charge of apostacy and desertion from his immaculate hero, when he reads, a few pages onward, the following eulogy on the rectitude and consistency—of Mr. Dundas!

P. 74. ' His accent and dialect are tinctured with provinciality. But though not always happy either in the choice of words or in correctness of phraseology, yet conscious of internal rectitude and accustomed to the contentions of the bar he is not easily abashed by any accidental slip, but proceeds unembarrassed to state the essentials of a question with clearness and precision. To that laborious industry and unwearied patience, which he derives from the habits of his early life, he joins steadiness and fortitude, the fruits of a sound judgment matured by experience. And, what is very rare, though he has acted with different parties, he has never forfeited the character of consistency. Open, bold, and superior to all obliquities he may be justly styled a wise senator and a worthy co-adjutor to his great leader.'

Our author, speaking of the acts which passed in the year 1793 to prevent the circulation of assignats and other promissory notes of the french government, says, P. 325.

' These measures, though clamorously opposed by the minority and the affiliated societies, were deemed extremely salutary by the mass of the people; as the jacobins, or the levellers in Britain and Ireland, formed every day a more extensive and closer connection with their brethren in France; as much speculation in french paper and consequently exportation of irrecoverable specie took place, and there was an extraordinary and dangerous influx of foreigners, and particularly of the infamous band of assassins, or 1200 knights of the dagger, who were sworn, but not gratis, like Mutius, to murder kings.'

This sentence requires explanation; who *the* infamous band of assassins was, thus sworn to murder kings, our author has left to the sagacity and conjecture of his readers: but this history, truly, he has written for posterity*! — it is dark and unintelligible, even to contemporaries. Who are these *infuriated* assassins? Where are these 1200 'knights of the dagger'; yet in the bosom of this country, and his majesty alive? — But

" There's such divinity doth hedge a king,
That treason can but peep to what it would;
Acts little of it's will."

These monsters, however, it is to be hoped, like the dreadful implements of warfare, pikes, battle-axes, and caltrops, which our author tells us were fabricated in Sheffield and Edinburgh, for the use of the english and scottish conventions, are the phantoms of his own creation. " On the first trial," said Mr. Sheridan in one of his speeches, delivered about the time of the memorable trials for high treason, " one pike was produced, that was afterwards withdrawn from mere shame; a formidable instrument was talked of to be employed against the cavalry; it appeared upon evidence to be a tee-totum in a window at Sheffield. There was a camp in a back shop, an arsenal provided with nine musquets, and an exchequer containing nine pounds and one bad shilling, all to be directed against the whole armed force and established government of Great Britain!"

* See the preface.

Macbeth with becoming diffidence exclaimed,

“ Is this a dagger which I see before me,
The handle toward my hand? — Come let me clutch thee.”

But Mr. M., without any hesitation, calls out roundly,

“ I see thee still,
And on thy blade, and dudgeon, gouts of blood.”

If it were necessary to offer any additional instance of prejudice and partiality to those already adduced, it should be the indignation with which Mr. M. relates, in various parts of his work *, the treacherous arts of the french republic, in order to detach the people of Great Britain from the government, and to excite civil commotions in the kingdom, contrasted with the coolness with which he mentions the employment of french emigrants in british pay — ‘ for the restoration of order in France ! ’ The expedition to Quiberon is regretted *only* because it’s issue was unfortunate; and England is honourably acquitted of the guilt of any attempt to excite insurrections in France, although the count of Artois, by her assistance, displayed the white flag on the coast of Britanny, and a body of ten thousand emigrants was paid by her, and regimented under the command of Pуйяе, Sombreuil, and other of the french nobility: as to the detestable and unprecedented meanness of forging assignats, our author has, *very impartially*, omitted the mention of it entirely; scarcely any thing but the testimony of a court of justice would be sufficient to establish this fact, so nefarious in itself, and disgraceful to the nation †.

After these observations on particular defects in the volume before us, it is unnecessary to add any general remarks; or shall we descend to censure — what are infinitely beneath censure — the silly angry epithets, annexed to the name of that ‘ savage corsican adventurer’ Buonaparte.

As we have felt it necessary to express our entire disapprobation of the partiality and intemperance with which this volume is composed, it gives us pleasure, thus publicly to thank the author for his successful endeavours towards the essential improvement of the daily publications, which so extensively circulate in this kingdom.

P. 2. ‘ Before the narrative commences, it may not be improper to premise, in a kind of fallustian preface, that the insertion of the genuine parliamentary speeches in the newspapers, a practice for which the public is indebted to the hazardous perseverance of the writer of this volume, has empowered the modern british historian of his own times to boast of an authenticity, which formerly could only be expected in histories composed after the lapse of many years from various documents and adverse publications compared, contrasted and reconciled, and frequently attended at last with mere conjecture, or at most with strong probability.’

* See particularly pages 290, 291, &c.

† See Cases at *Nisi Prius*, by Isaac Espinasse, p. 389, Strongitharm *versus* Lukyn.

Mr. M. announces his intention to persevere in his History 'till the conclusion of *peace* ; we suppose he means, till the conclusion of the *war* : his *Annals of Europe* will be much more valuable in our estimation, if he be less confident in the impartiality of his pen, less vulgar, and less abusive.

O. S.

ART. IV. *Memoirs illustrating the History of Jacobinism. A Translation from the French of the Abbe Barruel. Part I.—Vol. I. The Anti-christian Conspiracy.* 8vo. 388 pages. Price 7s. in boards. Basker. 1797.

IT has ever been the craft of the supporters of tyranny and superstition, to cast every possible odium upon reformers, by stigmatizing them with foul names, and charging them with nefarious designs. The french revolution, at it's commencement, was considered by many as the mere offspring of unforeseen events, inseparable from the times. Others were of opinion, that it was premeditated, but that the intention of the first authors was pure, and that they only sought the happiness of France in it's regeneration. The great misfortunes, and dreadful horrors, which have since happened, have been imputed to the obstacles, internal and external, thrown in the way of the reformers; and it has been presumed, that the commotions which have necessarily attended the renovation will gradually subside, and that temporary evils will be amply compensated by the future permanent enjoyment of public prosperity. To the abbe Barruel the matter appears in a very different light. His irritated fancy sees, or dreams of the most terrible and astonishing concatenation of intrigue, that has ever entered the mind of man ; he collects scattered facts, which he combines into a series, and from which, thus arbitrarily connected, he endeavours to deduce proofs of a **SYSTEM OF CONSPIRACIES**. These he undertakes to exhibit to the world, with authentic evidence : and he writes a voluminous account of their rise and progress, as Illustrations of the History of Jacobinism, in three parts. The first part contains 'The *Antichristian Conspiracy*, or that of the sophisters of impiety against the God of christianity, and against every form of the christian religion.' The second part lays open 'The *Antimonarchical Conspiracy*, or that of the sophisters of impiety, coalescing with those of rebellion against all kings.' The third part demonstrates 'The *Antisocial Conspiracy*, or that of the sophisters of impiety, coalescing with those of anarchy against every government, without even excepting the republican, against all civil society and all property whatever.' This work just now makes it's appearance in London, under the title of 'Mémoires pour servir à L'Hiistoire du Jacobinisme,' in three volumes, octavo. Of these volumes the first is, with great diligence, presented to the english reader.

The names of the formidable band who framed the first conspiracy are, Voltaire, D'Alembert, Frederic II, king of Prussia, and Diderot. Of these men such an account is given, as suited the writer's purpose ; and extracts are made from their writings to prove, that they were associated in a deep plot for the destruction of christianity. The means employed in this work are distinctly enumerated : the Encyclopedia ; the extinction of the jesuits ; the extinction of the religious orders ; a colony of philosophers, intended to be established at Cleves ; academic honours ;

honours; and an inundation of antichristian writings. Passages are cited to expose the buffoonery, hypocrisy, and intolerance of the conspirators.

The protectors and promoters of the conspiracy are arranged in the classes of crowned adepts; princes and princesses; ministers, noblemen, and magistrates; and men of letters. In the first class we find the names of the emperor Joseph II; the empress Catherine II; Christiern VII, king of Denmark; Gustavus III, king of Sweden; and Poniatowski, *late* king of Poland. In the second class are mentioned, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel; the duke of Brunswick; the duke and prince of Württemberg; the elector palatine; the princess Anhalt-Zerbst; the margravine of Bareith; and Frederic William of Prussia. In the third class are reckoned Amelot, the duke de Praeflin, the marquis D'Argenson, the duke de Choiseul, Malesherbes, Maurepas, Turgot, Necker, Briennes, Lamoignon, Meaupou, count D'Argental, the duke de Rochefoucault, &c. In the fourth class are included Rousseau, Buffon, Fréret, Boulanger, the marquis D'Argens, La Mettrie, Marmontel, La Harpe, Condorcet, Helvetius, Raynal, &c.

The conduct of the clergy who favoured, and of those who opposed the conspiracy, is described; particulars are related of the plans to seduce the lowest classes of the people, by free-schools, by public readings, and by the society of the economists for circulating cheap books. This part of the work concludes with a general view of the progress of the Antichristian Conspiracy throughout Europe, and an attempt to explain the delusion which has rendered the conspiracy against the altar so successful. For a specimen of this volume, we shall select part of the author's account of the crowned adepts.

P. 200.—* Immense was the distance between Frederick and this empress, in whom the conspirators placed so much confidence. Seduced by the talents and homage of their premier chief, Catherine may have been indebted to him for her first taste for literature; she almost devoured those works, which she had mistaken for masterpieces, whether in history or philosophy, totally ignorant of their being disguised solely to forward the ends of impiety. On the fallacious encomiums of the sophisters, she boldly pronounced, *That all the miracles in the world could never efface the pretended blot of having hindered the printing of the Encyclopedia**. But we never see her, like Frederick, to obtain the fulsome flattery of the sophisters, pay to impiety that degrading court. Catherine would read their works, Frederick would circulate them, compose himself and wished to see them devoured by the people. Frederick would propose plans for the destruction of the christian religion, Catherine rejected all those proposed to her by Voltaire. She was tolerant by nature, Frederick only from necessity. He would have been no longer so, had his policy permitted him, in following the dictates of his hatred, to call in a superior force to effect the overthrow of christianity †.

* Nevertheless,

* Her correspondence with Voltaire, letter 1, 2, 3 and 8.

† Those who, as men of literature, shall criticize the correspondence of this empress, will find an amazing difference between hers and that of the king of Prussia. The former is that of a woman of wit, who often plays upon Voltaire in the most agreeable manner. With her

• Nevertheless, Catherine is also a royal adept, she has the secret of Voltaire, she applauds the most famous of our infidels*. She is even willing to entrust the heir of her crown into the hands of D'Alembert; her name constantly appears among the protecting adepts in the writings of the sophisters, nor can the historian hide it.

• The claims of Christiern VIII. king of Denmark, to the title of adept, are also founded on his correspondence with Voltaire. Among the numerous services rendered by D'Alembert, I should not have omitted the pains he had taken to prevail on different powers and great personages, to subscribe to the erection of a statue in honor of Voltaire. I could have shewn the sophister of Ferney, modestly pressing D'Alembert to get these subscriptions, and that in particular from the king of Prussia, who hardly waited their solicitations. This triumph of their chief was too desirable for the conspirators; Christiern VIII. eagerly contributed. A first letter, with a few compliments, could not constitute an adept, but we have Voltaire's own word for it. He mentions him, and besides, among these compliments we find one so much in the style of Frederick, "You are now occupied in delivering a considerable number of men from the *yoke of the clergy, the hardest of all others*, for the duties of society are only imprinted in their heads, and never *felt in their hearts*. *This is well worth being revenged of the barbarians!*" Unfortunate monarchs! Such was the language held to Mary Antoinette, in the days of her prosperity, by those corruptors. But in her misfortunes, when she witnessed the loyalty and the sensibility of those *barbarians*, at the Thuleries, she exclaimed, "Oh! how we have been deceived! We now plainly see how much the clergy distinguish themselves among the faithful subjects of the king!." May the king that is led away by philosophism never be reduced to the same experiment; may he learn at least from one revolution, that there is a yoke more *hard* and terrible than that of the clergy, which Voltaire his master had taught him to calumniate.

• It is our duty to add, that with regard to this prince, as well as to many others who were seduced by the sophisters, the conspirators

her light style and full of taste, she never forgets her dignity; she at least will not be seen to degrade herself to that gross dialect of abuse and blasphemy; while Frederick in his, truly the pedantic sophister, will be as void of shame in his impiety, as he is of dignity in his encomiums. When Voltaire wrote to Catherine, "We are three, Diderot, D'Alembert and myself, who raise altars to you." She answers, "Pray leave me, if you please on earth, there I shall be more at hand to receive your letters and those of your friends." Nothing so perfectly French can be found in Frederick's, we only have to regret, that it was addressed to a set of infidels. Catherine wrote Voltaire's own language in perfect purity; while Frederick could have had little pretensions to the hero, had he not handled his sword better than his pen."

* 26th Dec. 1773, and No. 134, anno 1774.

† Let. to Voltaire, 1770.

‡ I heard this anecdote in the midst of the revolution, and such expressions were necessary to shew, that she was recovered from those prejudices she had imbibed against the clergy, and which appeared to have redoubled, after the second journey which her brother made to Versailles.

had taken advantage of their youth. At that period of life, the writings of Voltaire could easily make impression on men, who for being kings, were not better versed than other people, in what they had not learned, nor were they able to discriminate truth from error, in objects where the want of knowledge is more to be dreaded, than inclination or the passions.

At the time of his journey into France, Christiern was but seventeen years of age, and already, to use D'Alembert's expression, he had the courage to say at Fontainbleau, that Voltaire had taught him to think. Men of a different way of thinking, about the court of Lewis xv. wished to hinder his young majesty from learning still more to think like Voltaire, and from seeing in Paris, the adepts or most celebrated of his disciples. These however obtained admission, and to judge how well they understood improving their opportunity, we need only hear D'Alembert writing to Voltaire, "I had seen that prince at his own apartments, together with several of your friends. He spoke much about you, of the services your works had rendered, of the prejudices you had rooted out, of the enemies your liberty in thinking had made you. You easily guess what my answers were." D'Alembert has a second interview, and again writes, "The king of Denmark scarce spoke to me but of you.—I can assure you, he had rather have seen you at Paris, than all the entertainments with which they have surfeited him." This conversation had been but of short duration; but D'Alembert made amends in a discourse which he pronounced at the academy on philosophy, in presence of the young monarch. Numerous were the adepts present, and they applauded; the youthful monarch joins in the applause. In fine, such is the opinion he carries away of that pretended philosophy, thanks to D'Alembert's new lectures, that no sooner is he informed of a statue to be erected to the premier chief of the conspirators, than he sends a very handsome subscription, for which Voltaire acknowledges himself to be indebted to the lessons of the academical adept. How much these lessons have since been forgotten by Christiern v. I cannot pretend to say. Sufficient events have taken place since his danish majesty had learned to think from Voltaire, which may have given him a very different opinion of the services that the works of his master have rendered to empires.

Similar artifices were made use of with regard to Gustavus, king of Sweden. That prince also came to Paris, to receive the homage and lessons of the self-created philosophy. He was as yet but prince royal, when already extolling him as one whose protection was insured to the sect, D'Alembert writes to Voltaire, "You love **REASON AND LIBERTY**, my dear brother, and one can hardly love one without the other. Well then, here is a *worthy republican philosopher* that I present you, who will talk **PHILOSOPHY** and **LIBERTY** with you. This is Mr. Jennings, chamberlain to the king of Sweden.—He has besides compliments to pay you from the *queen of Sweden and the prince royal*, who in the North **PROTECT** that philosophy so ill received by the princes in the South. Mr. Jennings will inform you of the progress **REASON** is making in *Sweden* under those happy auspices."

At the time that D'Alembert was writing this letter, Gustavus, who was soon to restore royalty to the rights it had lost long since in Sweden, was no doubt ignorant that those great men, which he so much protected, were *philosophers superlatively republican*. He was equally

equally ignorant what would one day be for him, the last fruit of this conspiring philosophy, when on his accession to the throne he writes to their premier chief, "I daily pray the Being of beings, that he may prolong your days, so precious to humanity and so necessary to the progres of REASON and TRUE PHILOSOPHY."

This writer, though he pretends to disclose the grand secrets of a shocking conspiracy, in fact gives the public no information, of which they were not already in possession. It was not necessary to collect scraps from the letters, and other writings, of Voltaire, Frederic II, D'Alembert, &c., to prove, that they were enemies to christianity, or that their writings had made many converts among all classes of people. Their diligence and perseverance in disseminating their opinions, which, while one party calls impiety and blasphemy, the other considers as zeal against superstition and fanaticism, were well known; and the intemperate ardour, indecent rudeness, and dishonest craft, with which they prosecuted their design, had been often reprobated, even by many who were inclined to espouse their principles. But it was become expedient, that all possible reproach should be cast upon those, who support and exercise the right of inquiry, and who attempt any innovations in religious or political institutions: it was deemed necessary, in order to keep things in their old train, that the public mind should be strongly impressed with an antipathy to philosophers and philosophy; and the abbe Barruel wrote, and some zealous antiphilosophist is translating, a History of the Conspiracies of Philosophers, Free-Masons, Illuminences and Jacobines, against every religion and every government, against all society and all property. By such publications as these, weak minds may be alarmed and inflamed; but wise men will regard them as the mere ebullitions of party-rage, from which nothing decisive can be concluded, either respecting abstract truths, or political interests and duties.

E. D.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. V. *The History of the Poor: their Rights, Duties, and the Laws respecting them: In a Series of Letters. A new Edition corrected, and continued to the present Time.* By T. Ruggles, Esq. F.A.S. one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the Counties of Essex and Suffolk. 4to. 423 pages. Price 15s. in boards. Richardson. 1797.

In our Review, Vol. xvi, p. 447, we noticed the first volume, in 8vo., which was the only one then published, but which was followed by a second volume of the same size, which we have not yet noticed, of Mr. R.'s History of the Poor. The present volume contains the substance of the two octavo volumes first published, except something on the subject of the duty of the clergy in particular, which our author has thought proper in this edition to omit, with additions that bring the work down to the present time.

Our former analysis was, of course, being confined to one volume, and being the report of an unfinished work, imperfect; for which we shall now endeavour to atone, by giving due attention to this second, and improved edition. The first letter opens with the expression of

much just and benevolent feeling on the part of the author on the subject of the suffering state of human nature; and investigates how far the miseries of the poor are the result of the laws of nature, and therefore unavoidable; and how far, it may be hoped, they are susceptible of remedy. The letter concludes with ascribing very fairly, we think, some of the wretchedness of the labourer, to *excessive civilization*. The second letter states, from Fleetwood's *Chronicon Pictosum*, the price of agricultural labour, and the price of provision, from the fourteenth till about the middle of the sixteenth century.

The third letter opens with an examination of the effects of the tyrant Harry the eighth's confiscation of the monastic possessions, where we find our author's opinion to be, that the poor suffered little from the failure of the bounty of the ecclesiastics, which, he thinks, when they were affluent, was never great; but he acknowledges, that the subsequent marriages of many ecclesiastics thus thrown upon the world, and the inability to work of all of them, added greatly to the number of the poor, and laid a broader foundation for the interference of the legislature in their behalf, and the founding of establishments for their support. The fourth gives a rapid history of the interference of the legislature on behalf of the poor, for their support, regulation, and correction, from the middle of the fourteenth century, to the close of the reign of Henry the eighth.

In the fifth letter, beginning at the period of the reformation, our author pauses, and indulges in reflections equally just and melancholy. He states, that, before this celebrated era, the wages of the labourer bore some proportion to his wants; that he had not yet drunk of the intoxicating cup of luxury; that ale-houses and dram-shops had scarcely an existence; that manufactures, the boast, but the destruction of the country, the cause of national revenue, and general immorality and corruption, were not then introduced; and that the gulf did not then exist, which now exists, and which makes of the labourers a degraded *caste*, as fixed and more humiliating than those of the east; for now, he that is born in the condition of the agricultural labourer must remain in that condition in all generations, while the most humble servants of commerce and of manufactures may become opulent, powerful, and invested with office. After enumerating these sad particulars, he thus expresses his feelings.

P. 29.—^c No wonder, therefore, that those who lead a life of retirement, far from the haunts of the ambitious or voluptuous, who retreat from business or pleasure, either to cultivate a more intimate knowledge of themselves or to deceive the passing hours by an attention to the improvement or embellishment of their estates, should have their sensibility wounded by being not only hearers, but eye-witnesses, of the misery of their fellow-creatures.—No wonder that those who have been nursed in the lap of luxury should avoid those scenes which otherwise, it is probable, they would embellish by their taste; and desert those mansions, now untenanted and dreary, which, when occupied by the hospitable owners, diffused a gleam of cheerfulness through the country. It surely is not beneath the office of humanity, at times, to hold conversation with the peasant, whose labour improves or embellishes our demesnes; but the topic of such conversation too often distresses humanity, and sends the hearer home dejected and dissatisfied.

* The

The letter concludes with some reflections on the inefficacy of the institution of Sunday schools.

The fifth and seventh letters are employed in showing the *neglect*, which the poor experienced in the reigns of Edward the sixth and Queen Mary, and in observations on the celebrated act of Elizabeth, the foundation stone of the fabric of our present poor laws; that act of parliament at length being introduced into the seventh letter.

The eighth letter details an account of our author's establishing a small experimental school of industry, of which the pleasing result was, a profit upon the labour, and the children obtained an art.

It was on a small scale, but of units millions are composed.

Total expended	-	5	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Total produce	-	-	5	16 0

Produce - - - £. 0 6 3 $\frac{1}{2}$

The rest of the letter removes objections to parochial schemes of this kind, and it contains other good observations.

The ninth letter narrates the little that was done for the poor in the reign of James the first.

The commotions and revolutionary movements in this country in the reign of Charles the first, and during the protectorate of Cromwell, diverted the public mind from the condition of the poor, to the corruption of the court, and until the reign of the second Charles little occurs on the subject of this history.

The tenth letter states the price of labour and provision in the reign of the 'mutton eating king,' and complains, justly we believe, that notwithstanding the high price of wheat at that time, the labourer was then in a condition infinitely better than his present, now that *paper money* has so reduced the value of our circulation, as to render the price of labour utterly inadequate to the *wants* of the labourer. The law of settlements, which abridged the *liberty* of the poor, without benefiting the public, introduced in 1662, does not escape the benevolent attention and just animadversion of our author.

The eleventh to the fifteenth letter inclusive are employed in the examination of what has been advanced by the most celebrated authors on this subject, in the beginning of this century; in tracing the progress of the poor laws to the beginning of the reign of the first George; and in reprobating, with judicious severity, the additional measures which were adopted in the reign of the third William, to enforce the execrable law of settlements, which had been passed in the reign of Charles the second.

The sixteenth letter opens with some observations on the cotton and woollen manufactures of the kingdom, where we find many remarks on the *opposition of the laws and practices* of the country, worthy the exact attention of the reader. Our author decidedly prefers, as a measure of economy and patriotism, the use of woollen goods; but he sees morals, comfort, and every important consideration, sacrificed to an attention to revenue.

P. 108.—* The woollen manufactures of this kingdom certainly deserve greater encouragement than either linen or cotton; because wool, the staple-commodity of England, is the produce of our own agriculture; hemp, flax, and cotton, are, at present, generally the product of foreign agriculture: and also because the fabric of the woollen

woollen manufacture is strong and warm, suited therefore to the use of the bulk of the people: that of cotton and linen, weak and thin, improper for labour and a northern climate. Woollen clothing does not require so much washing as our printed linens and white stockings, an article of great expense in poor families; but the *revenue* is thought to be a sufficient reason for these paradoxical absurdities; and, that the public treasury may abound, drunkenness, gaming, luxury, and ostentatious clothing, are encouraged, in open defiance of the laws of the land. Those magistrates would be very coolly thanked for a conscientious discharge of their duty, who, to promote sobriety, should lessen the number of ale-houses; to discourage gaming, should authorize the parish-officers to refuse relief to those who singly, or in clubs, buy lottery-chances; or, to promote the manufacture of wool, should encourage informations upon the act of parliament just alluded to; the prevailing and general maxim of financiers, in all times, is *rem facias*; the means are but a secondary object of their attention.'

From the latter part of the sixteenth to the beginning of the twentieth letter our author employs in examining the schemes of various projectors of improvement in the system of the poor laws, tracing the progress of these laws, and offering some excellent observations, both from others, and his own mind, on the propriety of *doing something by reward*, and not proceeding with the poor exclusively upon a system of *coercion and punishment*.

There is one sad reflection, however, which accompanies this narrative of various exertions and valuable publications on the subject, that *nothing was done for their relief*.

The twentieth and twenty-first letters state the attempt made in the house of commons to collect information on the subject of the expenditure for the maintenance of the poor, and other important particulars, in the 26th of the present king's reign; when every one hoped, that the extraordinary nature of the reports sent to parliament would induce the legislature to adopt some important measure: but again the reader is shocked with an account, that *nothing was accomplished*.

The twenty-second letter examines the positions of Burn, respecting the poor, which occur in his 'Justice,' from many of which our author dissents: but he agrees in reprobating the abominable severity of the law against vagrants, which is certainly a disgrace to our Statute Book. We wish the Statute Book was stained with no other infamous ordinances.

The pages which compose the 23d, 24th, and 25th letters, are employed in reviewing the exertions of Mr. Gilbert and Mr. Young, for the improvement of the poor laws, which were, we write it with a sigh, wholly *fruitless*. These observations close with some remarks on population, on which our author appears rather to lean to the calculations of Mr. Chalmers, than to those of Dr. Price, but here his observations are short, and to us *unsatisfactory*.

The twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh letters assert the *right of the poor* to maintenance, when they are not able to labour, and affirm the *duty of the public* to maintain them. Our author is a strenuous advocate for a *compulsive provision* for the poor, in opposition to Mr. Townsend and others; and expresses his conviction, that the state of the poor in Ireland and Scotland affords no proof of the advantage of

leaving them to voluntary charity. On this subject we find the following passage.

P. 205.—⁴ If the case of the poor in Scotland and Ireland be produced as a proof, that leaving them to private charity would have a better effect than the rates of England, the answer is obvious; that, in Scotland, they are not left to private charity, in their principal cities, but are admitted to a provision out of the funds of the general session of those cities: and that they emigrate from the highlands, and the country where agriculture and manufactures do not find them sufficient employment, to those countries where there is employment: and the emigration of the useful subjects of a country has never yet been produced as a proof of the excellence of its internal economy.

Ireland presents, in your accurate and particular account of its internal police, no very flattering prospect of the situation of the poor, either with respect to their modes of life, their moral habits, or their industry. In the first instance, they are, in general, what the English peasantry were five hundred years ago: the cottage, which affords neither window or chimney, where cows, calves, pigs, children, men, and women, all lie on straw together, on the same floor; their raggedness, which approaches to nakedness, and the general disuse of shoes and stockings, give one no refined ideas either of their cleanliness or their comforts: and a country where pilfering is carried to that excess; that turnips are stolen by the poor in cart-loads, and acres of wheat carried away in a night, is not a country of well regulated police or good moral principles: neither will the dance in the evening, or the last polish which they receive from the dancing-master, who is essential to their system of education, compound for that excess of laziness, and that weakness in their exertions, when encouraged to work, which has occasioned you to doubt of the heartiness of their food,—potatoes, oatmeal, and milk; although the athletic forms of the men, and the swarms of children in their miserable cottages, bespeak vigour and health. I must conclude, therefore, that, were the Irish to take the forty-third of Elizabeth, together with the consequence flowing from a strict execution of it, the poor, as well as the rich, would find their scale of comfort and prosperity rising from the change: and were we, in this kingdom, to call the parochial clergy to our assistance, in preserving an execution of the laws respecting the poor, more consistent with the original intention and obvious meaning of those laws; which are calculated to encourage a spirit of industry, not of idleness; of economy, not of profusion; a spirit of honesty, not of theft; of religion, not of atheism; of subordination, not of riot; and if the legislature of this country should ordain such to be their line of duty, which certainly is their line of conscientious and honourable interest; the scale of prosperity and comfort among our poor would also rise, and that of the expense attending their maintenance and relief would gradually subside.'

The following letters, to the 30th, examine the law of settlements; propose its correction, not its repeal; and assert, that there should be a revision of the statute book, and all laws, whether respecting the poor or others, should be repealed, which ought not, from their rigorously, or a change of the habits of society, to be exactly and constantly enforced. In these observations we entirely agree with our

our author, and recommend them to the consideration of all our readers.

The 30th letter makes statements, and draws conclusions, which we think have no connecting link; and the conclusions appear to us, also, not in unison with other parts of this valuable work. That when their wages bore a fairer proportion to their wants, before the introduction of the law of Elizabeth, the poor were worse provided for than since that time, is a mere supposition, and appears to be made to favour the notion of the importance of a compulsive provision. That wheat was so high the first fifty years of this century, that the wages of the poor *then* were more unequal to its purchase than their *present* wages, may be admitted without conceding, that the poor's wages bear a greater proportion to their wants *now*, than they did *then*; for *then* butcher's meat was cheap and in plenty, their constant and most strengthening food. Now, alas! the flesh of animals is confined to the tables of the rich.

We are equally unconvinced by what is offered, in direct opposition to the repeated assertions contained in the former part of this work, and the two following chapters, from a comparison merely of the price of wheat and labour, to confirm the observations of the 20th letter.

House-rent, candles, shoes, butter, milk, and all sorts of butcher's meat have greatly increased in price, above the proportionable increase of labourer's wages; and even Dr. Adam Smith does not suppose all these luxuries: besides, there are other grains than wheat to be taken into the account, and which formed a better rule of judging in this case, at the beginning of this century, than wheat; we mean barley and oats, then chiefly used for the poor in bread.

There are few subjects on which we are inclined to differ from Dr. Adam Smith, but on one subject, on which his observations are introduced into this work, we are compelled, *toto caelo*, to differ from him. So far from thinking as he does, that the wages of the labourer are somewhat more than barely sufficient for the serving of a family, we think, as it has often been stated to the house of commons, that a man, his wife, and two children, much less six or seven, cannot now exist upon the honest produce of the diligence and sobriety of the man.

Mr. R. wishes industry to be encouraged; but he does not wish the minimum or maximum of wages to be fixed.

Mr. R. thinks the best plan for encouraging industry, amongst the poor, which he thinks indispensable, if we would preserve the country from absolute destruction, is to institute in each parish, or other division, *schools of industry*; and he recommends to universal attention the report of Mr. Locke, and the experiment lately made of such schools in the county of Lincoln.

He then proceeds to answer all objections that he conceives can possibly be brought against schools of industry, but we are sorry the length of his observations forbids us to introduce them.

The author offers many observations on the pernicious consequence of encouraging ale-houses, and wishes the government, more attentive to revenue than morals, to reduce them at a stroke, at least one third in number.

Much is said, in some subsequent letters, on the subject of friendly societies, of which our author seems much to approve, and various

good rules are introduced for their regulation. Our author seems on this subject to have only one fear, lest these Societies become seminaries of sedition. Surely never was a free country so afraid of sedition as is free and enlightened England!

We find, in the 42d letter, many observations on the duties of menial servants, and the masters of such servants.

Our author next details an account of many houses of industry, belonging to incorporated hundreds in various places, and draws a pleasing contrast betwixt the order, neatness, and comfort of these houses, and the disorder, filth, and misery, of the parish workhouse, and the crowded cottage. He then proceeds to answer these questions.

1. Have these institutions amended the morals of the poor?
2. Have they diminished the burden of society attending their relief?
3. Have they decreased or increased the chance of human life?

The first question is answered in the affirmative without hesitation, and doubtless with justice. To the second, the author replies by the following statement.

P. 332.—^c Blything hundred; Bulcamp house of industry; the whole debt, 12000l. has been paid off; the rates were diminished one-eighth in 1780; and, as they were not on an average above one shilling in the pound annually when first incorporated, they are now inconsiderable.

^c The hundred of Cosford, and the parish of Polstead; the house of industry at Semer; the whole debt, 8000l. has been paid off, except an annuity of 20l. a year, and 180l.; but they have stock more than sufficient to discharge these remaining demands; the poor's rates have been diminished three-eighths; and the rates were very moderate when the hundred was incorporated.

^c Wangford-hundred house of industry, at Shipmeadow; original debt 8500l. of which 4000l. is paid; rates remain the same.

^c The hundred of Samford; the house of industry at Tattingstone; the original sum borrowed 8250l. of which 2450l. have been paid; the rates were settled at 2s. 8d. in the pound annually, and remain the same.

^c Hundreds of Bosmere and Claydon; the house of industry at Barham; the original sum borrowed 9994l. of which 7294l. have been paid; the rates remain the same.

^c Stow-hundred; the house of industry at Onehouse, near Stow-market; the original sum borrowed 12150l. of which 1500l. have been paid; the rates remain the same.

^c Hundreds of Colneis and Carlford; the house of industry at Nafton; the original debt was 4800l. is now 3900l. the rates were increased at Midsummer, 1790, from 1487l. 13s. 4d. annually, to 2367l. 8s. 8d.; but from information it appears, that the rates were not more than sixteen or eighteen pence annually, when the average was fixed; and the revenue of the house has exceeded its expenditure on an average of the last seven years 513l. 11s. 10d. annually.

^c Hundreds of Mutford and Lothingland; the house of industry at Oulton; the original debt 6500l. of which 2000l. has been paid off; the poor's rates are advanced ten per cent. but 300l. of the debt is annually paid off.

^c Hundreds

Hundreds of Loes and Wilford; the house of industry at Melton; their original debt was 9200*l.* their present debt is 10050*l.* their poor-rates, together with their county-rates, do not now exceed 15*d.* in the pound at rack-rent.

By this recapitulation it appears, that, at two of the houses of industry, the rates have been considerably diminished, and the original debt annihilated.

At four, the rates remain; but a considerable part of the original debt has been paid.

At two, the rates have been increased, and the debt diminished: at the last house of industry the debt has been increased, and the rates remain the same.

The question, whether houses of industry tend to diminish the expense of the relief and maintenance of the poor, is therefore answered in the affirmative, since in two the rates are diminished, the debt is paid; in four, the debt has been considerably diminished, consequently the annual balance in their favour might have been applied to the purpose of diminishing the rates, *pari passu*, with the debt; in two of the others the balances have been applied hitherto to diminish the debt only, and the rates have increased; in one, the debt is somewhat increased, and the rates remain the same, at the low average of 15*d.* in the pound annually.'

To the third query, Mr. R. gives no positive answer; after a very fair and ingenuous statement of facts, he leaves the determination to future experience, unable to satisfy himself, and to exclude doubt from his own mind.

Our author, however, has no hesitation in recommending the adoption of this plan of houses of industry to all the country, and thinks, the general result would be extremely beneficial.

Mr. R. wishes the laws respecting the poor to be simplified, and to be duly enforced; on this subject we have the following judicious observations.

P. 347.—‘ But, however, the fact certainly is now as it was then. No act of the legislature can be efficient for the purpose if not executed. We may make laws for ever and for ever; they may swell the pages of the statute-book, and serve to fill up the shelves of our library, but are a mere waste of paper, words, and time, if not enforced: some means should, therefore, be invented, not to multiply our penal sanctions, but to simplify and render unavoidable the execution of our laws. Supposing that to be done, we should proceed, in the poor-laws, just as a prudent man, in his possessions and economy, who is master of a large family: he would, in the first place, make his estates derived from his ancestors as productive as possible; consequently, if he thought that the prodigality, carelessness, or knavery, of those who had been in possession of them in past times, had wasted, neglected, or disposed of, any, without having right so to do, he would attempt all legal means to recover what had been so alienated or disposed of; he would himself occupy, or let to good tenants, at improved rents, what he possessed; he would bring his children up in habits of economy, industry and sobriety; his servants he would train to regularity, honesty, diligence, and civility; he would excuse a single act of omission of duty, but not a regular inattention to it; he would punish the vicious, and reward the deserving: and surely he would

would not, if he had the power to prevent it, permit an ale-house to be close at his doors: he would also expect, that the numerous members of his household, or, at least, all of them that could be spared from the necessary domestic duties of the day, (which duties he would reduce into as narrow a compass as possible,) should attend divine service once a week at least, to return thanks to the Almighty for that state of regularity and comfortable order they have lived in during the last week, and to pray him to prolong it to another.'

In the year 1794, our author became acquainted with Mr. George Rose of the Treasury, to whom he communicated various plans of amendment of the poor laws, and to him he informs us the country is indebted for the act respecting *friendly societies*. We confess ourselves admirers of the clause in that act respecting settlements and removals, and as we think *this clause* a good thing for the country, we are anxious to tell our readers of one good act of the famous money-making George. The memoirs communicated to Mr. Rose by Mr. R. are too long for insertion, we must therefore be contented to recommend them to the notice of our readers, and refer to the book itself.

In the 56th letter our author gives a sketch of the heads of an act respecting the poor, which he assisted to settle for the direction of the legislature, and to which Mr. Pitt appears to have paid great attention.

Our readers will by this time be enabled to form a judgment of the merit of this work, which embraces, as they will perceive, a wide field of inquiry, which is the result of the actual observation of an active magistrate, which furnishes many facts, and which is intended to recommend not the repeal, but the correction and improvement of the poor laws, and the establishment of schools and houses of industry.

Written at different periods, and intended to be published in a periodical work, we ought not to be surprised at frequent repetitions, and some want of arrangement. In this last respect however the work is very faulty, and to an accurate arrangement, more than any thing else, works of this nature must owe a steady and eager perusal; and it is this which enables every reader by recollection to make the information his own. We should be truly glad to see the respectable author, whose benevolent exertions entitle him to much praise, revise the work, arrange it with exactness, compress some parts, omit others, which occur only as repetitions, and publish it, in this improved state, in one octavo volume. The number of his readers would thus be increased, their recollection assisted, and it's effect on the public mind would be more extensive and durable.

This book will be placed on the shelf with the work of sir F. M. Eden. It is however inferior to that work, in the accuracy and minuteness of historical detail, in the compass of observation, in the adduction of particular statements, and in the arrangement of it's parts. In works of this nature, all above perspicuity of style is more than is necessary, and when our author attempts ornament, he discovers that he is no poet. His subject, however, demands no poetical embellishment.

We think on the subject of the comparative state of the poor, as to comfort and accommodation, Mr. R. has changed his opinion as he has proceeded in his work: whether to ascribe this to more correct and enlarged observation, or to the cold communications of Mr. Rose,

we are at a loss to determine. Mr. R. has, however, our thanks for his 'labour of love,' and we should be proud to be deputed to convey to him the thanks of the country. His book is a valuable addition to the stock of publications on the poor, rapidly, we thank God, increasing; and which we hope are the precursors of some efficient plan for their relief.

We have read it's pages with melancholy pleasure, a melancholy arising from the contemplation of human misery, and a pleasure springing from the hope of redress. We rise from it's perusal, from the perusal of it's last page, with the conviction expressed in the former part of the book by our author; a conviction shaken by no subsequent remarks, but steady and unwavering, that the misery of the poor, in this country, *has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished.*

S. A.

MEDICINE. SURGERY.

ART. VI. *An Account of two Cases of the Diabetes Mellitus: with Remarks, as they arose during the Progress of the Cure. To which are added, a general View of the Nature of the Disease and its appropriate Treatment, including Observations on some Diseases depending on Stomach Affection; and a Detail of the Communications received on the Subject since the Dispersion of the Notes on the first Case.* By John Rollo, M. D. Surgeon-General, Royal Artillery. *With the Results of the Trials of various Acids and other Substances in the Treatment of the Lues Venerea; and some Observations on the Nature of Sugar, &c.* By William Cruickshank, Chemist to the Ordnance, and a Surgeon of Artillery. 2 Vols. 8vo. 636 pages. Price 12s. boards. Dilly. 1797.

SINCE the principles of modern chemistry have been applied to medical science, many valuable additions have been made to our knowledge of the nature and cure of disease; and the present performance affords a beautiful, and, in some respects, satisfactory illustration of the truth of the observation. On these grounds Dr. R., by his ingenuity and research, has furnished the medical practitioner with a plan of treatment in diabetes mellitus, that is equally new and philosophical. He has even proceeded one step further, and successfully subjected it to the test of actual experiment in two cases, which form the basis of the practice that he has inculcated in these volumes.

On the utility and mode of applying chemical remedies he justly remarks,

VOL. I, p. 59. 'That the application of the new chemistry to medicine will in time prove of the greatest advantage there is not the least doubt. Not only the nature of diseases, but their treatment will become more satisfactorily and successfully illustrated. We are however of opinion, that the progress to its therapeutic perfection must be chiefly by attention to the stomach. The conveyance by the lungs pneumatically is a mode of difficulty, and perhaps of uncertain effect. The same may be said of the skin. By means of the stomach, and general regimen, the system may be hyper-oxygenated, may be de-oxygenated, and

may be confined to its necessary oxygenated state. Our notes on the diabetic case illustrate this, but further trials and investigations will more certainly confirm the remarks; we would therefore recommend, that the principal attention in the application of the doctrines of the new chemistry to the removal of disease, should be by the stomach, and general regimen. Time and industry will add to our present stock of agents. It is a great step to be enabled to say, that by a mode of conduct we can not only produce something a-kin to scurvy, and affections of a directly opposite tendency, but also remove them—an advance of knowledge to which we have already arrived."

The progressive advances in the curative treatment of the two cases of diabetes are detailed with great minuteness and ability; and they shew, in the clearest manner, the advantage of the plan that was pursued, and the importance of the reasonings on which it was founded.

The inferences which have been drawn from these cases are so ingenious and interesting, that we are tempted to lay them before the reader in the words of the author.

vol. i, p. 175. ' 1st. That the diabetes mellitus is a disease of the stomach, &c. proceeding from some morbid change in the natural powers of digestion and assimilation.

• 2d. That the kidneys, and other parts of the system, as the head and skin, are affected secondarily and generally by sympathy, as well as by a peculiar stimulus.

• 3d. That the stomach affection consists in an increased action and secretion, with vitiation of the gastric fluid, and probably too active a state of the lacteal absorbents.

• 4th. That the cure of the disease is accomplished by regimen and medicines preventing the formation of sugar, and diminishing the increased action of the stomach.

• 5th. That confinement, an entire abstinence from every species of vegetable matter, a diet solely of animal food, with emetics, hepatised ammonia, and narcotics, comprehend the principal means to be employed.

• 6th. That the success of the treatment in a great measure establishes the five preceding inferences.

• 7th. That the saccharine matter of the disease is formed in the stomach, and chiefly from vegetable matter, as has been shewn by the immediate effects produced by the abstinence from vegetable matter, and the use of animal food solely.

• 8th. That aescency is predominant in diabetic stomachs, which continues even sometime after the entire abstinence from vegetable matter and after the formation of sugar; and that while such aescency remains, the disposition to the disease may be supposed to continue.

• 9th. That the saccharine matter may be removed in three days, and by avoiding vegetable matter will not be again reproduced, but we are not yet able to state accurately when the disease, and the disposition to it, can be finally removed. Such knowledge may be, however, acquired in other cases where the patients adhere correctly to rules.

• 10th.

‘ 10th. That there are two circumstances to be considered in this disease, which we may separate in the progress of the treatment, as it has been shewn, that though the formation of sugar was prevented, yet the increased action of the stomach remained and maintained the defect of assimilation, which prevented nutrition. Hence two objects occur in cure: for it is not yet determined whether the preventing the formation of sugar by an entire abstinence from vegetable matter, and the use of animal food with fats, if properly persevered in, might not ultimately comprehend the other, namely, the removal of the morbid action of the stomach.

‘ 11th. That the lungs and skin have no connection with the production of the disease.

‘ 12th. That the quantity of urine is probably in proportion to the quantity of liquids taken in, and has but little dependence on absorption of fluids from the surface of either skin or lungs.

‘ 13th. That though the disease has been shewn to consist in an increased morbid action of the stomach, and probably too great a secretion, with vitiation of the gastric fluid, yet the peculiar or specific conditions of either, as forming the disease, is acknowledged to ly in obscurity, and must remain so until the physiology of healthful digestion is properly explained and established.

‘ 14th. That the first case had only been of about seven or eight months duration when the treatment commenced; but the second case had been upwards of three years continuance. The age of the one was 34, of the other 57. Circumstances which constituted material differences, though they seemed not to create corresponding difficulties in the treatment, so far as the direct removal of the complaint was concerned. They may, however, retard in the one instance the entire restoration of health.

‘ 15th. That in both cases, deviations occurred in the management, and were respectively followed by reproductions of the disease, and though disadvantageous to the patients, have confirmed our views of its nature and treatment.

‘ 16th *and lastly*. That from both cases we may warrant this general conclusion, THAT THE DIABETES MELLITUS IS SO FAR UNDERSTOOD, AS TO BE SUCCESSFULLY CURED.’

The brief statement of what has been hitherto done in the methods of removing this complaint comprehends much, though, we believe, not the whole of what has been advanced. Camphor has been strongly recommended by a late writer; but it is not here noticed by our author.

The whole of our former knowledge and experience of this disorder is thus concisely summed up.

VOL. I, p. 206. 1st. That the diabetes mellitus has been referred to a defective state of digestion and assimilation.

2d. That it has been referred to a morbid condition of the kidneys.

3d. That the precise nature of either affection has not been explained, nor understood.

4th.

‘ 4th. That the disease has been generally held incurable, as no distinct views of treatment have been proposed, nor any practical mode been uniformly successful; indeed very few cases of the disease are on record as having been cured, and even these are very unsatisfactory, as not being founded on any principle, but seemingly conducted at random.

‘ 5th. That immoderate thirst, voracious appetite, and a great discharge of urine, containing a large proportion of saccharine and other matter, are characteristic symptoms of the disease.

‘ 6th. That dissection has shewn very slight changes in the natural appearance of the kidneys; but that an enlargement of mesenteric glands has been uniformly met with.

‘ 7th. That the blood, taken in any period of the disease, though not sensibly sweet to the taste, except in Dobson’s case, yet *its serum has had a tuberculous appearance*. Home, however, mentions no appearance deviating from that of health, but a *thick inflammatory crust* in the blood of one of the patients.

‘ 8th. That the only relief has been obtained from blood-letting, emetics, narcotics, antispasmodics, warm bathing, rubbing the skin with oil, animal fats received into the stomach, and what Home terms *scoparies*; though Dr. Ferriar and Mr. Scott attribute cures to bark, the sulphuric and nitric acids.

‘ And 9th. That tonics and stimulants generally have done harm.’

The nature of the diabetes mellitus, as suggested by the treatment of the cases that are here recorded, and the opinions which have previously been entertained concerning the disease, having been laid before the reader, Dr. R. takes a more particular view of the origin of the disorder, and the method of treatment, that he supposes best suited to its removal. In this part, we meet with much ingenious reasoning, and a judicious explanation of several circumstances attending the complaint. It is, perhaps, somewhat unnecessarily extended, by the extracting of a variety of passages from writers on digestion, &c., where the substance might have been given in a very few words.

On the causes of diabetes, Dr. R. observes, that the most general are,

VOL. I, P. 215, ‘ Active labour of body or mind, singly or combined; an unrestrained indulgence in eating, and of various articles of food, especially of those things exciting the action of the stomach, or otherwise interfering with its healthful motions; a free use of fermented liquors; or an uniform participation of strong vegetable food of the farinaceous kinds, are the circumstances of life which have usually preceded an attack of the disease.

‘ The most common predisposition seems to consist in a naturally strong action of the stomach, demanding food oftener and in larger quantity than what generally appears to be required. With such a condition of the stomach, and opportunities of indulging in variety, in warm stimulating condiments, in wines, and other fermented liquors, or even in a full participation of farinaceous food, as oatmeal and potatoes, with plentiful draughts of

of small beer, accompanied by great bodily exercise, with or without active mental employment, the disease may be, and is actually produced. At any rate these are the circumstances under which the disease has been found to have most commonly occurred. The history, however, and the remote causes, require more facts, and more accurate investigations, in order to lead to complete elucidation.'

The facts and observations contained in the account which is here given of healthy urine, by Mr. C., are highly useful and interesting. Little has yet, we believe, been done, with a view to ascertain the natural state of this fluid, so as to form a standard for the direction of the judgment.

On the nature of the increased action of the stomach, the vitiation of the gastric fluid, and the defect of assimilation, which take place in this disease, the author has offered some ingenious conjectures. He thinks, however, that,

VOL. I, p. 256, 'By attending to the various states of the stomach which occur, and the corresponding changes of urine, with the particular causes producing them, and the condition of the persons at the time, much farther light may be thrown on the causes immediately producing the state of stomach and gastric fluid on which the diabetes mellitus depends. In the mean time, we comprise the proximate cause of the disease in this concise abstract. A morbidly increased action of the stomach, with consequent secretion and vitiation of the gastric fluid, marked by a voraciousness of appetite, quick returns of it, and great acidity. The direct effects of which are, the formation or evolution of saccharine matter, accompanied with a certain defect of assimilation, probably in part owing to too much activity of the lacteal absorbents. Such increased action of the stomach and lacteal absorbents, with the stimulus of the saccharine matter, produce the great urinary discharge, the thirst, headache, and dry skin.'

The mode of removing the disorder is perfectly consistent with the notion which the doctor entertains of the nature and causes of it. It hinges upon these two principles; 'the prevention of the formation or evolution of the saccharine matter in the stomach, and the removal of the morbidly increased action of the stomach; and in the restoration of the stomach to a healthful condition.'

The means by which these purposes are to be accomplished, are 'animal food, animal fats, and confinement, with an entire abstinence from every kind of vegetable matter.' These may be assisted by the daily use of alkalies, calcareous and testaceous substances. The proportion of animal food should be so restricted as to satisfy the stomach in the smallest quantity possible.

The miscellaneous observations which follow on scurvy, diabetes mellitus, and other diseases depending on affections of the stomach, contain some useful facts and deductions: they may afford hints, by which the ingenious practitioner may be led to a further application of chemical principles in the cure of disease.

The first part of the second volume contains the communications of some of the most distinguished practitioners in this country,

try, on the subject of diabetes. These have been received in consequence of the author's having dispersed notes on his first case. They afford considerable support to the doctrine which has been advanced in these volumes; and, in other respects, many of them are highly interesting. The case detailed by Dr. Gerard, of Liverpool, is extremely satisfactory; and, in some degree, ascertains two facts of great importance. 1st. That, in this disease, there is no absorption of fluids by the skin; and, 2dly, that animal food may alone, if duly persevered in, cure the disease, and, probably, in a very short time. The cases of this disorder, described by Dr. Cleghorne, of Glasgow, also afford two decisive facts in favour of Dr. R.'s opinion, and strongly mark the utility of a strict animal diet.

In short, so far as trials seem yet to have been made on the principles laid down by this writer, they appear to have afforded conviction of the justness of his theory of the disease. What may be the result of further attempts in this way, it is not our business to inquire.

The second part of this volume comprehends the result of Mr. C.'s trials of different acids, and other substances, in the cure of lues venerea. It is a very important and interesting communication, which deserves the notice of practitioners, both from the satisfactory manner in which it is drawn up, and the salutary advantages that may be derived from it in the removal of a very distressing disorder.

In order to be convinced of the antisyphilitic quality of the nitrous acid, and to determine how far it might depend on the oxygene that it contained, the following attempts were made.

VOL. II, p. 145. * The first substances employed were acids, such as are known to contain much oxygene, and which parts with it readily; those already used have been the nitrous, oxygenated muriatic, and citric acids. It is well known, that the basis of these are different, and the only thing which they have in common is oxygene; if, therefore, they should all produce the same, or nearly the same effect, on this disease, as well as on the constitution, the natural inference is, that this must depend upon their common principle.

* The only other substance which we have yet tried is the oxygenated muriate of potash, a neutral salt, containing much oxygene, and which parts with it very readily. We mean, however, to extend our researches farther, when a proper opportunity shall offer, and to make trials with some of the other acids, the black oxyd of manganese, &c.'

The cases in which these substances were employed are not numerous, yet sufficient to show their power over the disease. The effects produced by the remedies are described with much neatness and brevity: but Mr. C. has only made use of them in the primary stages of lues venerea; what is therefore to be expected from them in secondary affections remains to be decided by future trials.

Their effects on the system were these:

VOL. II, p. 156. * An increase of appetite, an augmentation in the quantity of urine, more or less thirst, white tongue, and

an increased action of the whole system, most generally accompanied with fizzy blood. The oxygenated muriatic acid appeared to be the most active, and the citric acid the least so. The nitrous acid, in a few instances, likewise affected the bowels. The oxygenated muriate of potash produced thirst, the white tongue and the increased action of the system, in a more remarkable degree than the acids, but there was less alteration perceived in the quantity of the urine, and the appetite. The effects therefore induced in common by these different substances, appear to be a general increased action of the whole system, accompanied for the most part with fizzy blood.'

The author adduces many ingenious reasons for supposing, that the increased action in these cases depends on the disengagement of oxygen. He then inquires how this increased action removes the local sores produced by the venereal virus.

VOL. II, p. 199. 'Is it true,' says he, 'that all general affections of the system suspend for a time the local ones, the consequence of this poison, or must we have recourse to some specific powers, as has generally been the case in explaining the action of mercury? We are inclined to adopt the first hypothesis, and to suppose, with Mr. Hunter, that mercury, as well as the remedies under consideration, cure this disease by exciting a new action in the system, in consequence of which the syphilitic one is suspended; and this suspension being continued for a sufficient length of time, the whole of the virus, from the change which the fluids naturally undergo, is at last completely expelled from the body.'

'With regard to the last hypothesis, we may observe, that there can be little or no doubt that if oxygene could be applied directly to this poison, it would destroy it specifically, in the same manner as it destroys many others; but it is extremely difficult to conceive how this substance, so prone to combination, should, when taken in by the mouth, be applied in its pure state to a remote local sore, in a quantity sufficient to produce any sensible effect; and this objection applies still more strongly to mercurial remedies, because in some of these, as the mercur. muriat. corrosiv. and mitis, the quantity of oxygene disengaged must be extremely small. From these considerations, therefore, we are inclined to adopt the opinion of Mr. Hunter, and to suppose that these different remedies produce their effects, by exciting a new disease, or action in the system; and that this action, for the reasons already given, is produced by the disengagement of their oxygene. If this theory be correct, we have no more reason to expect relapses after a course of these acids, &c. than after one of mercury; nay, if we should suppose the virus to be absorbed, and carried into the general mass of circulation, where it must be exposed to the action of the disengaged oxygene, the patient, upon the whole, might be considered as more secure, for there will be a greater chance in this case of its complete destruction and eradication. This is a point, however, which experience alone can determine.'

Such are the reasonings of this intelligent writer on these curious topics.

The

The experimental inquiry concerning the nature of sugar is both ingenious, and well calculated to explain the formation of the saccharine principle, and thereby to elucidate some of the more important points in the treatment of diabetes.

The account of a morbid poison acting on sores, and of the means of destroying it, are highly interesting to surgeons; but we cannot here enter into an examination of the author's reasonings and reflections on them.

We shall conclude our review of this judicious performance, by remarking, that it embraces a very extensive range of medical disquisition, and presents the reader with much novelty in the application of modern chemical principles, in the cure of disease.

ART. VII. *Surgical and Physiological Essays. Part III.* By John Abernethy, F.R.S., &c. 8vo. 208 pages. Price 4s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

It is only by extensive practice, and the opportunities afforded by the patients of a large hospital, that many of the more important branches of surgery can be much improved. Possessing these advantages, and a mind strongly biased to the investigation of truth, Mr. A. seems extremely well prepared for the inquiries, that are undertaken in these essays. And the practical reader will not, we think, be disappointed in the expectations, that he may have formed of the utility of the observations, which are presented to his view, on the difficult subjects that the author has handled. They are treated with much judgment, and form a valuable addition to the knowledge already possessed. On the subject of the first essay, which is 'Injuries of the Head,' we have frequently thought with Mr. A., that Mr. Pott, and some of the French surgeons, inculcated a too general use of the trephine.

P. 4.—'In the accounts which we have of the former practice in France,' says Mr. A., 'it is related that surgeons made numerous perforations along the whole track of a fracture of the cranium; and, as far as I am able to judge, without any very clear design. Mr. Pott also advises such an operation, with a view to prevent the inflammation and suppuration of the *dura mater*, which he so much apprehended. But many cases have occurred of late, where, even in fractures with depression, the patients have done well without an operation. To confirm the accounts that have been given of such cases, and by this means to counteract, in some degree, the bias which long-accustomed modes of thinking and acting are apt to impress on the minds of practitioners, I shall relate the histories of five cases, that occurred at St. Bartholemew's Hospital in the space of twelve months; and afterwards offer a few remarks upon the subject. The principal circumstances only of each case are related; for, as many examples of the same kind are to be found in various surgical books, a minute detail of particulars seems to be unnecessary.'

From what he has seen in six cases, Mr. A. is inclined to conclude, that a slight degree of pressure does not derange the functions of the brain; at least for a limited time after its application, whatever

it may do at some remote period, which he scarcely imagines will be the case.

P. 15—^c The degree of pressure which the brain can sustain without great injury to the system, probably may vary according to the disposition of that organ to be affected by it, the suddenness of its application, and the direction in which it is made; and although it must be very difficult to obtain any precise knowledge on this subject, yet there is great reason to believe that the brain can bear more pressure without injury to it, than was formerly supposed. The first of these circumstances seems evident; for in some persons a slight pressure produces severe symptoms; whilst, in others, a much greater degree is borne without inconvenience. Where a compressing cause does not, in the first instance, occasion bad effects, if inflammation of the brain ensues, it seems then to act injuriously; which probably arises from the increased susceptibility of the brain. We can rarely judge of the effects of pressure when any part of the cranium is beaten in by a blow; for in that case the shock generally occasions stupefaction. Internal haemorrhages, perhaps, afford us the best criterion whereby to determine the effects of pressure on the brain. The seventh case will serve as an illustration of this remark, where it appears that a considerable haemorrhage must have taken place before it deprived the patient of his faculties; for he walked home, undressed himself, and went to bed, after the trunk of the middle artery of the dura mater had been ruptured. In cases of apoplexy also, the haemorrhage is generally very large before it produces those consequences which destroy life.'

On these, and other grounds, he thinks, that though there may be cases in which it would be unsafe to neglect the elevation of the depressed part; yet, whenever the patient retains his senses perfectly, he conceives it improper to trepan him. In fact he is against using the trephine in slight depressions of the skull, and where the extravasation on the dura mater is small.

Here Mr. A. draws the attention of surgeons to a circumstance, which has not been properly considered; it is the laceration of the large arteries of the dura mater, without which he suspects the quantity of blood poured out will be inconsiderable, and the slight compression of the brain, that it occasions, be unattended with any peculiar symptoms, or at least the effects which are produced will soon go off; but that if there be so much blood on the dura mater, as materially to derange the functions of the brain, the bone, to a certain extent, will no longer receive blood from within; and by the operation performed for its exposure, the pericranium must have been separated from its outside. The bone so circumstanced, he believes, will not bleed, at least so freely, or with such celerity as it does when the dura mater remains connected with it internally. By these circumstances, Mr. A. supposes, that it may generally be determined, whether blood be effused between the dura mater and skull or not, and consequently the necessity of operating be ascertained.

On the nature of those substances which sometimes suddenly rise up after operations on the skull, and which have been termed fungous tumours,

tumours, or *herniae cerebri*, Mr. A. remarks, that none of those that he has seen were of an organized structure.

P. 45.—^c Their formation seems to proceed from an injury done to a part of the brain by concussion or contusion, which has terminated in a diseased state of the vessels, similar to what occurs in apoplexy. The morbid state increasing, one or more vessels give way, and an effusion of blood into the substance of the brain ensues, which, if the skull were entire, would probably occasion apoplexy, but, where there is a deficiency of bone that allows it to expand, presses the surface of the brain and its meninges through the vacant space. The dura mater soon ulcerates, and the tumour pushing through the openings, now increases with a rapidity proportioned to that with which the haemorrhage takes place within. At last, the pia mater, and the stratum of the brain which cover the effused blood, are so extended as to give way, and the blood oozes out and coagulates.—Thus the quick growth, and all the other phenomena observable in these tumours, are satisfactorily accounted for.

The treatment of these tumours, Mr. A. thinks, should vary according to circumstances; but where no bad symptoms precede the appearance of the tumour, or where it goes away on freeing it from the confinement of the dura mater, nothing more is necessary, than to cover the tumor with mild dressings, carefully avoiding all pressure.

The observations of this judicious surgeon are not less important on various other points that relate to the same subject. The effects of concussion of the brain are described with much clearness and discrimination; and many hints for the improvement of the methods of treatment are thrown out.

The circumstances that Mr. A. has suggested, as showing the distinction between compression and concussion, are, we believe, the result of just observation, and are of much utility in a practical point of view.

The remarks on inflammation of the pia mater, and on cases of diseases of the bones of the cranium, and of the dura mater, are equally valuable.

The second essay is on the lumbar abscesses, and forms a kind of supplement to what the author has already advanced respecting the treatment of that disorder by puncture. Twelve cases of this disease are here described, in which the author's method seems to have been tried, and frequently with success. The mode of discharging the abscesses, that he now follows, is this:

P. 128.—^c When I first began to open lumbar abscesses in the method I have recommended in this and my former essay on the subject, I was extremely solicitous to do it in such a manner that the inner part of the aperture might act like a valve, to prevent any matter from oozing out, so as to keep the orifice open. I have found, however, that great care in this respect was quite unnecessary. I now make the opening with very little obliquity, and by using a broad abscess lancet, the wound is generally sufficient to give a discharge to those coagula which are so frequently found in the matter. I always completely empty the abscess, and then bring the lips of the orifice together by means of lint and sticking-plaster.

as after the operation of phlebotomy ; and over these a compress and bandage are applied. I dress the wounds every second day, and of late have found little difficulty in healing them, though many of them granulate before they completely unite. The only troublesome circumstance that has lately occurred to me, has been an enlargement of the lymphatic glands on the front of the thigh, at the place where the abscess has been opened.'

The proper time of repeating the openings will depend on circumstances ; but Mr. A. thinks it best to wait, until the integuments are sufficiently elevated to allow of a puncture being made in them, without any hazard of wounding the parts underneath.

The further experience of our author has led to the knowledge of a few additional facts and remedies : it has shown, that the disease is more frequently connected with a diseased state of the vertebrae, than he had supposed ; and that, in some cases, advantage may be derived from emetics and electricity. The difficulty of managing injections in these cases will strongly operate against their being employed.

The essay on irritability is short, and furnishes us with little that was not well known before. The experiments were, however, very ingeniously contrived, and well executed. And we think that many strong objections are made to the conclusions of some late physiologists, with respect to oxygen being the cause of irritability.

The last essay comprises surgical cases and remarks, and has a large portion of useful practical matter. This observation is particularly applicable to what will be met with in the author's reflections on aneurism and emphysema. On the use of a bandage in cases of the last kind, he says, and we believe justly, that

P. 188.—‘ In whatever state the lungs happen to be when they are wounded, a bandage, if it can be borne, seems therefore to me extremely useful. By means of it, the pain and irritation which the motion of the fractured ribs must otherwise occasion, are in a great measure, or entirely, prevented. In that state of the lungs which I have first described, the pressure of a bandage prevents emphysema, and does no harm ; in the other, it not only prevents emphysema, but does good, by keeping the collapsed lung at rest, and thereby free from the necessity of constantly transmitting air. Patients, however, will not always be able to wear a bandage when one lung is collapsed (particularly if any previous disease has existed in the other), as it equally confines the motion of the ribs on both sides, and as every possible enlargement of the chest becomes necessary for the due admission of air into the lung which still executes its functions. Under these circumstances, if the emphysema continues (and its continuance must always denote that the wound in the lung is not closed), I should esteem it the best practice to make a small opening into the chest, so that the external air might have free communication with that cavity ; and then the injured lung must remain motionless till its wound is healed, and the mediastinum will, in every state of the thorax, preserve its natural situation.

‘ As almost all the circulating blood must, in such cases, be transmitted through the vessels of one lung, if the quantity of that

fluid be not greatly diminished, the pulmonary vessels will become turgid; a larger effusion of fluids will therefore take place into the air cells, and cavity of the chest, and thus the function of the acting lung will be materially impaired. This reasoning illustrates what experience has already determined, viz. that the preservation of life in these cases depends on the most copious blood-letting.'

On the use of mercurial fumigations, Mr. A. has added some judicious directions to those suggested by the chev. Lalonette.

On the whole, we are disposed to think favourably of Mr. A.; not only for the justness and solidity of his practical directions, but the philosophical spirit, by which he seems actuated, to extend the bounds of his profession.

ART. VIII. *Descriptive Account of a new Method of treating old Ulcers of the Legs.* By Thomas Baynton, Surgeon, of Bristol. 8vo. 115 pages. Pr. 2s. 6d. Robins. 1797.

In the whole range of surgery perhaps no diseases have been more troublesome and harrassing than those of old ulcers. In this point of view then, as well as that of their occurring most frequently among the lower classes of society, they become particularly interesting to the practitioner.

P. 4.—* If a man in affluence, or in circumstances that enable him to pay for advice and assistance, meets with such an accident, he by rest and proper care, obtains a cure:—If a labouring poor man experiences such a misfortune, which it must be allowed he is very liable to, he is obliged to pursue his occupation, for support, as starving is a greater evil than even *a continual ulcer*; thus, a complaint, that might have been cured, becomes every day worse, and at last often ends in what *has been deemed* an incurable disease.

* The means I have to propose will in most instances be found sufficient to accomplish cures for the *worst cases* without pain, or confinement. And thus the poor man, who is now by the circumstances of his situation almost deprived of a rational hope, may in future be enabled to procure his family sustenance, whilst he pursues the means that are calculated to restore him to health. These advantages, with many others, so obvious as not to need publication, when the whole stock of healthful ability that a country contains may be put in requisition by its wants*, have induced me, and not the vanity of authorship, to make known what I think the experience of all will prove to be a material improvement in the art of surgery. And when it is considered that our acquaintance with *nature* is every day increasing, it will not be arrogant to suppose that those who write last upon subjects connected with *it*, may, without being possessed of any uncommon share of sagacity, make discoveries that escaped the penetration of those who had written upon the same subjects with fewer data.'

The discovery, which this ingenious surgeon has made in the healing of old ulcers, is of the most obvious and simple kind, and clearly

* * It is expected that many brave seamen and soldiers will be restored to their country by these means, that otherwise would have continued useless to themselves, and to the community.

shows upon what trifling circumstances the process of cure in these sores depends. It is thus related by himself.

P. 7.—‘ About the commencement of the year 1792, after having experienced repeated disappointments in my endeavours to obtain permanent cures for some patients, with whom, I had taken more than common pains, and for whom I had tried rest in a horizontal posture, exercise, precipitate, bandages, and every other remedy I was acquainted with, that authors had recommended, both alone, and conjoined with the most approved internal medicines: *I determined on endeavouring to bring the edges of those ulcers, that might in future be placed under my care, nearer together, by means of slips of adhesive plaister;* having frequently had occasion to observe, that the probability of an ulcer continuing sound depended much on the size of the cicatrix that remained after the cure appeared to be accomplished: and well knowing that the natural shield of the part, the true skin, was a much more substantial support and defence, as well as a better covering, than that frail one, that is obtained by the assistance of art in the common methods of cure.—At that time, I had in view to lessen the probability of those ulcers breaking out again, that might be healed by the means I proposed to make trial of, as well as an expectation of being able, if the application could be borne by my patients, to gain some time in the cure.

‘ Little, did I think that a method so simple as the mere application of a slip of adhesive plaister, *in a particular way,* would prove the easiest, most efficacious, and most agreeable of all applications, to a wound so proverbially irritable as an ulcer; much less could I expect that it would lead me to the discovery of a method of curing with ease, those diseases that had so long exercised my patience, and defied my industry: It had never in that species of sore, I believe, been tried, therefore it is no wonder, though every surgeon must acknowledge his obligations to it in recent wounds, that I then adopted it as a very doubtful remedy. Opportunities to try it were not long wanting, and although the cases that first presented were of an unfavourable description, I had the pleasure to perceive that it occasioned very little pain in the application, sat easily upon the wounds, gave my patients great satisfaction, and in every instance materially accelerated the cure. I had also the pleasure to observe that the chief purpose of its application was obtained, namely, that the size of the cicatrices were much less than they would have been, had the cures been obtained by any of the common methods.’

His success at first was not however complete, as in many instances portions of skin, adjoining to those on which the plasters had been applied, were frequently removed with the plasters themselves. This the author, not only obviated by keeping the plasters and bandages well moistened with spring water for some time before they were removed from the limb, but he found, that by the practice other advantages were procured; such as that of the patients being rendered more comfortable in their sensations, and the surrounding inflammation being sooner removed.

Under this treatment another circumstance occurred, which equally surprized our author; it was that of the cure being performed with equal celerity and ease, when the patient made use of the limb at the same time, and when he did not. This is a fact which directly contradicts

dicts the general experience of surgeons; and on which Mr. B. reasons in this manner.

P. 15.—^c If the modern theory of inflammation be just, is it not likely that the equal pressure which will be applied to the mouths, and sides of the divided exhalants by these means, when assisted with a proper bandage, may as effectually prevent that disproportionate flow of serum, and coagulating lymph, which constitutes the discharge of ulcers, as absolute rest in a horizontal posture? and when it is considered that the health of a wound is very frequently affected by the quantity of its discharge, I think it will appear probable, where it is too great, that the means proposed may produce their good effects by preventing the distention of the vessels, and in that way obstructing the supply of fluids that they had been accustomed to receive and pour out, which it will be recollect'd were generally increased and vitiated, in proportion to the exercise of the part, and will now be found to be in an equal or greater degree diminished and improved by the plan that is recommended; indeed so remarkable will the difference be found, that in many of those neglected ulcers that I have met with among the poor, the discharges, which upon the removal of their dressings had fallen in a stream from the part, have in two or three days, at farthest, been reduced to the quantity that is usually afforded by the healthiest sores; the difference in the quality will be equally remarkable, as it has been in almost every instance observed, that those ulcers which before the application of these means were so offensive as to leave an intolerable *fætor* when they were dressed, have in the same space of time, or nearly as soon, become perfectly sweet and inoffensive.'

Many other advantages resulting from this mode of treatment are here mentioned; after which Mr. B. takes notice of a circumstance respecting the operation of the *aqua vegeto-mineralis*, which seems to have eluded the observations of many judicious practitioners.

P. 25.—^c It has been proved that a larger quantity of blood circulates through parts that are inflamed, than they were accustomed to transmit in a state of health, that the diameter of the vessels of parts in such a state is considerably enlarged, and that the discharge of wounds and ulcers is nothing more than certain parts of the blood, somewhat altered in their properties by the action of the vessels. Under such a view of the disease, is it not probable, that the good effects of the *aqua vegeto mineralis* may be better explained in the following manner, than by the unphilosophical acknowledgement of specific virtues that never have been, and I think never can be demonstrated? It is now known that the heat of a part is greater or less in proportion to the quantity of arterial blood that passes through it; that the heat of animals is occasioned by the abstraction of caloric, or the matter of heat, from the atmosphere, by the *Lungs* in the act of respiration, that it is communicated from them to the blood in the pulmonary veins, by them transmitted with the blood to the left side of the heart, from thence thrown into the aorta, and by its branches conveyed to the remotest parts of the body. It is also known, as hath been observed before, that parts in an inflamed state have their vessels distended, and receive more blood than parts in a state of health.

— From these considerations it must appear that the heat of parts in an inflamed state must be greater than similar parts of the same body in

in a state of health. Is it not probable then that the good effects of the aqua vegeto mineralis have resulted either from the abstraction of the increased heat of the part, by means of its cooler temperature, or that by the sensation of cold, which such applications convey to the parts inflamed, a contraction of the vessels may have been occasioned, and a supply of that most stimulating material heat diminished; as well as the undue flux of those parts of the blood that constitute the discharges of ulcers? Or may it not produce its good effects in each or all of those ways? It has been astonishingly useful in some ulcers that afforded acrid discharges, I believe, by simply diluting, and in that way diminishing the corrosive quality of such discharges.

The author does not however deny the utility of the application in some cases, but thinks them much fewer than has generally been supposed.

Mr. B. next proceeds to give an account of the manner in which his plan of cure is to be conducted; which does not appear to possess much difficulty of execution.

In the concluding part of the pamphlet, he supports the propriety of the practice which he has inculcated, by a judicious detail of the progress and cure of several inveterate cases of old ulcers; and offers some ingenious conjectures, on the nature of the granulating and healing processes in these kinds of wounds.

From the great simplicity of the plan here proposed, and the candour with which it is described, we cannot help recommending it to the attentive consideration of chirurgical practitioners. It must be observed however, that Mr. B., in recommending this method of proceeding in the cure of old ulcers, seems to have paid too little attention to the difference of their nature; and we cannot think, that his plan will equally succeed in all the varieties of these sores.

ART. IX. *Observations concerning the Diet of the common People, recommending a Method of Living less expensive, and more conducive to Health, than the present.* By William Buchan, M. D., &c. 8vo. 44 pa. Pr. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

THOSE, who have examined with that attention which they deserve, the truly sensible and ingenious plans of the benevolent count Rumford, for the economical maintenance and support of the poor, will stand very little in need of the advice of doctor Buchan. That intelligent philosopher has shown in the most clear, forcible, and satisfactory manner, that much is capable of being done in the feeding of the lower classes of society by a proper choice; and judicious attention to the modes of preparing and dressing those articles, which may be employed as food.

Doctor B. has said very little in this pamphlet, that has not been said a thousand times before, and probably in equally as good a way. We cannot indeed find, that he has suggested any one improvement, that can have a tendency to introduce a much more economical method of supporting the human species. He has, it is true, endeavoured to show, that the use of other substances would be more advantageous in guarding us against disease, than that of bread; but this we fear will go only a very little way in lessening the expence of living among that

class of people, for which his observations are intended. The habits of the author have evidently led him to consider the subject more in a medical, than philosophical point of view; which we do not think the most advantageous way of proceeding, since mankind seem to be less anxious about their health than their money.

We are however told, p. 8 —^c that the people of England have too much good sense not to listen to reason, provided due care were taken to instruct them. But here the people may be truly said, “*to perish for want of knowledge.*” No means have been used to give them proper instruction. Hurtful customs have been suffered to prevail, till they have struck such deep roots that it will not be an easy matter to eradicate them. The difficulty, however, is not unsurmountable. A few experiments of reform would have the effect to render it as agreeable as it is salutary.

‘ Adults have many old prejudices to overcome, but the case is different in regard to children. They may be taught to use any kind of food, and what they use when young they will love when old. If I can introduce a different method of feeding children, my purpose will be answered. This alone will, in time, effect a total change in the general mode of living.’

But the disciples of another, and more ancient school, tell us, that the people have *too much knowledge*. Thus the *learned* differ; while perhaps the evil, when fully traced to its source, will be found to originate from neither the one nor the other of these causes. But the medical opinions of our author are not always even philosophically correct. He is continually talking about this or that kind of food *firing the blood*, and being *parching*, &c. Cheese we find to be of this nature, according to our author.

The whole of his observation, on the very important business of economy in living, is summed up in the following passage.

P. 42.—^c The mode of living that I would recommend to the lower orders of the people, with a view to save expence and improve their health, is to substitute occasionally other farinaceous substances in the place of bread, as potatoe, &c. to give up in a great measure the use of roasted, baked, and broiled meats, and to supply their place with broths, soups, stews, and such like, made with a little meat and plenty of vegetables; to give to children, and to grown people who will eat it, for breakfast, milk-porridge, or hasty-pudding with milk, small beer, or molasses. This will be found a more wholesome breakfast than tea, while it is much cheaper and requires no bread.’

We are much afraid, that those, who may adopt this plan, will find but very little saving in it, as the writer seems to have over-looked one very obvious circumstance, which is, that many of the articles of food, which he recommends, are already in pretty general use, and that some of the others are even more expensive than that for which they are to be substituted;

A. R.

BIOGRAPHY.

ART. x. *The Life of J. G. Zimmerman, Counsellor of State, and first Physician to his Majesty the King of Great Britain, at Hanover: Knight*

Knight of the Order of Wladomir: and Member of several Academies. Translated from the French of M. Tissot: lately published at Lausanne. 8vo. 104 pages. Price 2s. Dilly. 1797.

IT is always with pleasure that we divert our attention from the history of heroes and of kings, whose desolating and bloody achievements are the theme of ill-merited panegyric, to the simple biography of some amiable individual, whose laurels have been innocently gained in the field—not of victory, but of literature: and whose conquests have been—not over others, but himself. The name of John George Zimmermann has long been known and respected in every country, and every court of Europe. The family of his father had long distinguished itself in one of the small cities of Switzerland, for the honour and integrity with which it had passed through various elevated offices in it's native canton; and the subject of the present memoirs was born at Brug, a town in the german part of the canton of Berne, on the 8th of december, 1728. He seems to have had an early predilection for the medical profession, which was, undoubtedly, not a little increased by the kindness, and almost parental care, of baron de Haller. The commencement of that most intimate and cordial friendship, which subsisted between Zimmermann and his present biographer, Mr. Tissot, is to be traced to the medical pursuits, in which they were both engaged. The latter gentleman published, in the year 1754, a book intitled, *Isoculation Justified*: he had availed himself of Zimmermann's Medical Lucubrations, and very handsomely presented him with a copy of his work, accompanied with a letter of civility: the answer required a reply; an interchange of letters succeeded, and the correspondence lasted with the life of Zimmermann; but the following extract will show, that many years elapsed of this unreserved intimacy, before either of these gentlemen had seen the other.

P. 22. 'His letters to me, during fourteen years, gave me, every week, sometimes oftener, the exact representation of his medical occupations, his literary pursuits, his plans, his manner of life, his cares, and his pleasures. Without having ever seen him, I was intimately acquainted with him; for no body was more frank and candid with his friends, and I had his whole heart always open before me. He communicated to me the particulars of several diseases, together with the nicest and justest observations on their symptoms, their causes, and the effects of the medicines he applied. An enemy to a multiplicity of drugs, he made choice of the most efficacious, and attended to their effects with an accuracy and perseverance which I have seen in very few other physicians. If his lady or his children were indisposed, I received by every post the most minute details of their illness: his tender regard for objects naturally so dear to him, rendered him very timid; and his extreme confidence in me, for this always accompanies our love and esteem, made him request my advice, not only on these occasions, but likewise on other serious cases which occurred in the course of his practice. His remarks on the works which he read, and their authors, rendered

his correspondence as useful as it was pleasing. He announced to me Heyne's edition of Virgil as soon as it appeared. And to him I owe the obligation of re-perusing that poet. The notes so well illustrate his spirit, and point out his beauties in a manner so superior to any I had before seen, that it seemed to me as if I had read an entire new work. His letters also frequently contained a number of literary anecdotes, with which his other correspondents furnished him. Sometimes, however, his cares and anxieties were almost the only topics on which he wrote; but I could generally perceive, that in his most unhappy moments, the sense, the serenity, softness, and tenderness of his lady, could in an instant dissipate all the mental anguish he laboured under, and bring him back to a state of tranquillity and ease. Unhappily, the health of this excellent woman became considerably affected. She was subject to the attacks of a low catarrhal fever, accompanied with much pain: each return of the fever weakened the nervous system; and the continued sight of the sorrow of a beloved husband, did not a little increase its effects. She became subject to nervous spasms; and her illness greatly augmented the distress of Dr. Zimmerman; afforded him new reasons for retirement, and a new occasion of increasing attachment to his literary occupations.

The account of the first interview between Zimmerman and Tissot is highly interesting.

P. 57. 'The education of his daughter, deprived of the attention of her grandmother, who did not long survive his lady, was another source of inquietude. He sent her to me in 1773, requesting my assistance in finding a proper situation for her; she remained two years in the same house with myself, and in the company of some ladies of great merit. It was when he came to fetch her, in 1775, and when he passed five weeks with me, that I had at length, for the first time, the satisfaction of seeing him, I will not say of knowing him; I found that I knew him already. The friend conversing, reminded me every moment of the friend writing, and perfectly resembled the portrait I had formed of him in my imagination. I beheld the man of genius, who, with promptitude, seizes the clear idea of every object in all its relations, and whose imagination knows how to present it under the most agreeable forms: his conversation, assisted by an animated and expressive countenance, was brilliant, instructive, and fraught with a number of interesting facts, and entertaining narrations; he spoke of every thing with great precision: when our conversation took a medical turn, and this was often the case, I found his principles solid, and his notions clear; when I took him to see patients, who were oppressed with very severe illness, or when I read to him consultations addressed to me in very difficult cases, I always found in him the greatest sagacity in discovering the causes, and explaining the symptoms of the disease, great justness in forming indications, and an exquisite judgment in making choice of remedies; of which he employed few, but all efficacious: in short, I beheld throughout, the man of sincerity, rectitude, and virtue. His stay was much shorter than I could have wished.

He

‘ He carried back with him his daughter, who possessed all the qualifications adapted to justify the extreme tenderness of a father, whose happiness would have been complete in her, had not a very great vexation, soon after her departure from Lausanne, given a shock to her constitution, which she never could get over * : this threw her into a languishing complaint, which lasted five years ; and which, during the whole of that time, gave the most poignant uneasiness to Dr. Zimmerman, who had likewise, about the same time, an additional cause of sorrow, perhaps of a more distressing nature ; the state of mind into which his son was fallen.’

This unhappy youth languished, during twenty years, in a state of perfect idiocy, which, together with the loss of a beloved daughter, might well increase the naturally hypochondriac temperament of their afflicted father, and make still dearer to him his favourite solitude.

Mr. Tissot, in the pages before us, has very properly given a sketch of the various works which his friend produced, and, of course, does not omit the mention of that which particularly extended his celebrity, namely, his *Reflections on the Influence of Solitude*. (See *Anal. Rev.* vol. xi, p. 319.) It is unnecessary for us to make any observations on this work, in addition to those already referred to ; but our readers will gladly be corrected of any erroneous opinion respecting the author’s character, which they may have formed from the perusal of it, and will be curious to know the nature of the correspondence which it procured him with Catharine, the late empress of Russia.

p. 67. ‘ A perusal of this work might lead us to believe, that Zimmerman was a man of a severe and reserved temper ; blunt and satirical in company ; but this, we have already seen, was very far from his real character. “ There was a striking difference between his manners and his writings. Always gentle, polite, and complaisant in conversation, incapable of ever saying a word to give offence ; the moment the pen was in his hand, he lost his urbanity, and became satirical. In publick, the rules of good-breeding, and the gentleness of his character, restrained him : when retired to his desk, his natural energy, his love of virtue, and his hatred of whatever was ridiculous, carried him away, and he had no longer any command of himself †.” Precisely in this light did I view him. The mildness of his temper was undisturbed and constant in society, but he seized the characteristics of mankind, with the greatest ease and promptitude : their follies, their foibles, their incongruities, struck him at first sight ; and, when he retired to his closet, he painted them in the liveliest colours.’

‘ * A disappointment in love, as Zimmerman himself relates in the german original of his *Solitude*. W.’

‘ † Zimmerman himself was well aware of this apparent contradiction : which he has, in some measure, explained. See p. 186, 187, of the english edition of *Solitude*. See also p. xxxv, of the Account of his *Life and Writings*, prefixed to the last translation of his *Essay on National Pride*.’

‘ This

‘ This Essay on Solitude had a great effect, not only in Germany, but wherever that language was read ; it procured him a correspondence which afforded him a real pleasure, that of the empress of Russia, whom his book had reached, without his interference, and even without his knowledge ; in fact, it was not very natural to think of presenting her with a work, which so well delineates the happiness to be enjoyed in retirement from the world. This enlightened princess was, however, so well pleased with the work, that she resolved to express her particular thanks to the author. On the 26th January, 1786, a courier, dispatched by M. de Grosse, the Russian envoy at Hamburg, presented M. Zimmerman with a small casket, in the name of her majesty the empress of Russia. The casket contained a ring, enriched with diamonds of an extraordinary size and lustre ; and a gold medal, bearing on one side the portrait of the empress, and, on the other, the commemoration of the extension of the Russian empire, by the addition of a new kingdom. To this present, the empress added a note, written in her own hand, containing these remarkable words : “ To M. Zimmerman, counsellor of state, and physician, to his Britannic majesty, to thank him for the excellent precepts he has given to mankind, in his Treatise upon Solitude *.” The whole was accompanied by an invitation on the part of the empress, through the medium of M. de Grosse, to M. Zimmerman, to come and pass some months of the summer-season at Petersburgh, as she was desirous of becoming personally acquainted with him. His letter to the empress contained the most lively expressions of gratitude for the honours she conferred on him ; but he wrote to M. de Grosse, that he feared he could not undertake such a journey without prejudice to his health ; that nevertheless, if her majesty was peculiarly bent upon it, he would attempt it. The empress herself was pleased to dispense with it in the most gracious manner ; she wrote to him, “ that she did not chuse his health should suffer from the satisfaction which his journey would have occasioned her.” The correspondence continued regularly for six years, till the year 1792, when the empress suddenly dropt it. The subjects of these letters were generally politics, literature, and philosophy. All those of the empress are replete with the most elevated sentiments, accompanied by a most pleasing affability. Physic was never the topic of their correspondence ; she frequently repeated, and seemed desirous, that he should make no secret of it, that her health was very excellent, and boasted that it did not cost her 30 sous in a year. Yet she caused a proposal to be made to him, without appearing in it herself, to be established at St. Petersburgh, in the quality of her first physician ; and he was offered as far as ten thousand rubles salary. After M. Zimmerman had declined this honour, she commissioned him to procure young physicians and surgeons, as well for her military establishment, as for such cities of her empire as were in

* See the English translation of the French translator’s preface to Solitude ; where this anecdote is told with some variation as to the reverse of the medal.’

want of them. Many of those whom he recommended to her, have become fortunate and wealthy, and as a mark of gratitude for the service he thus rendered her country, the empress caused him to be invested with the order of Wladomir; another time she presented him with the two fine gold medals, which were struck in honour of M. M. Orloff, on the occasion of the plague at Moscow, and of the destruction of the turkish fleet.'

They, who have read the work of Zimmermann on Solitude, will scarcely require being told, that he was subject to an hypochondriacal affection; and Mr. Tissot relates several anecdotes respecting the irritable state of his nerves, which would be ludicrous, did they not excite reflections of a melancholy nature, respecting the inconsistency of genius, and the imbecility of man.

One of the causes, to which our author attributes the death of Zimmermann, was the rapid progress of the secret society of the illuminated in Germany. This society was established in Bavaria some thirty years ago, and Zimmermann is supposed to have discovered, among other mysterious doctrines, those principles which produced the revolution in France, and which, in our author's opinion, as well as in that of his friend, have, for their object, the destruction of the christian religion, and the subversion of every throne and every government. The death of the emperor Leopold II, who protected a journal, in which the genius of Zimmermann and Hoffmann was employed to combat the principles, and restrain the propagation of this formidable society, was an unlucky blow to both these gentlemen: to Zimmermann it proved a deadly one; for so deeply was he impressed with the importance of his cause, that he exerted himself with redoubled vigour; and the unremitting attention, which he bestowed on it, rapidly destroyed his health. He expired on the 7th of October, 1795. For some time previous to his dissolution, he was haunted by a very dreadful idea, that the enemy was plundering his house, and that he was destitute and penniless. From a complication of mental anxieties and bodily pains, from intensity of application and insufficiency of nourishment, this amiable man—a genius, but a martyr to hypochondriacal illusion, sunk into the grave, a melancholy spectre. Such were the ravages of time and irritation!

ART. XI. *Biographical Curiosities or various Pictures of human Nature, containing original and authentic Memoirs of Daniel Dancer, Esq. an extraordinary Miser, &c.* 12mo. 313 pages. Price 3s. 6d. Ridgeway. 1797.

THESE biographical anecdotes are very properly preceded by a list of the books, from which the particulars have been obtained: the memoirs of Barbarossa and Hayradin are taken from Dr. Robertson's Charles the fifth; those of Tycho Brahe, from Coxe's travels in Poland, Russia, &c.; those of Gregory the first, from Mr. Gibbon's history; and the sketch of Mr. Brindley's character is drawn from Dr. Aikin's history of Manchester: memoirs of many other characters are added, from equally respectable authorities. Although collections of anecdotes like the present gratify and cherish the indolence of lounging

ing readers, yet, if they supersede the use of jest-books, and low indecent novels, the exchange will be very much for the better. Curious information on the nature and peculiarities of man, is undoubtedly to be obtained, from the sketch of extraordinary characters; and when that sketch is copied from the pages of respectable historians, some few, less lazy than their fellows, may possibly be seduced into the perusal of the histories themselves.

E. D.

THEOLOGY.

ART. XII. *Lectures in Divinity, delivered in the University of Cambridge.* By John Hey, D. D. as Norifian Professor. 3 vols. 8vo. 1435 pages. Printed at the University Press, Cambridge. Sold in London by Leigh and Sotheby, &c. 1797.

To read a course of theological lectures in any public seminary is an important undertaking: in a national university, where the established religion of the country is alone to be taught, the undertaking is attended with peculiar difficulties. In such a situation it may reasonably be expected, that the lecturer will feel himself under some embarrassment, and that the student will scarcely be able to divest himself of a suspicion of unfair play. Some management, and dexterity, must unquestionably be used; but, if with these be united great ingenuity, extensive reading, and as much candour and fairness as the professor's station, and the spirit of the times will admit, the duties of the chair may be discharged with credit. Without prematurely deciding upon this lecturer's claim to public approbation, we do not hesitate, in the outset, to say, that Dr. H. appears to have bestowed much thought, and great labour, upon these divinity-lectures; that he has taken a wide compass, and brought together a great variety of matter; and that his general plan is new, and a larger portion of the arguments and illustrations, than is usual in lectures of this kind, original. The doctor introduces his work with an apology for the want of studied elegance in the style, which we think wholly unnecessary. The familiarity of conversation best suits the prelector's chair; and the judicious reader will be better pleased to meet the author's ideas in the negligent dress in which they first appeared, than in the trim neatness of formal composition. These lectures, we are informed, were not written in order to be *read*; the writing was merely *a preparation for speaking*. The reader, without much effort of fancy, may imagine himself in the lecture-room—to which we shall, without further preamble, introduce him.

After a general introduction, containing sensible and candid remarks on the present state of theological knowledge, and on the dispositions with which this branch of science ought to be studied, the professor enters upon an examination of the two principal sources of religious knowledge, reasoning on the nature of God, and studying the Scriptures. On the first of these he contents himself with a general explanation, and brief statement, of the two methods of reasoning concerning the nature of God, *a priori*, and *a posteriori*.

a posteriori: on the second, he gives the pupil much useful information concerning the books of Scripture, the languages in which they are written, the ancient versions, and manuscripts; and various readings. We shall copy the doctor's concluding observations on a new english version of the Scriptures.

VOL. I, p. 61.—⁴ It has now been asked, for some time, whether we ought not to have a *new version* of the Scriptures into our own language. Dr. Kennicott thinks * the proper time not far off, and, as I remember, Dr. Rutherford, who opposed him in some things, agreed with him in this; and gave this university his concurring opinion, in his latin sermons: but we seem to me scarce to be sufficiently prepared for such a work at present: Dr. Kennicott grounds his opinion on the *collations* published by him; but, I should think, no one man can collate with sufficient exactness to be depended upon; besides that, he did not make nearly all the collations himself, which he published: the same work should be gone through again, with Dr. Kennicott's collations;—whoever went through it would make many new remarks; and, where they only confirmed what he had done, they would be of great use. Who durst adopt implicitly all the remarks he makes? even though no particular objection appeared? If persons of learning were appointed to take each a small part of the Scriptures, to examine all the readings, propose new senses for the world to judge of, a new translation might go on gradually and safely; the legislature might employ proper persons; and at last collect the parts, and set the seal of public authority.

* I fear also, there is scarce a sufficient fund of sacred *literature* amongst us, just at present; we are apt to view things superficially;—nor perhaps is there a zeal for religion sufficiently strong and steady. The 17th century was more *learned* than the present.

* It is not enough, that new translators are likely to render some parts better than they were before; the question is, whether upon the whole they are like to produce a better translation.—Yet all parts must be submitted to their discretion. From the attempts, which I have † seen, at new english translations, though perhaps each may hit off some improvements; I profess myself desirous at present to continue the use of our present Bibles; especially as they are the established language of christian piety; and associated with religious sentiments. How many people have *psalms* and chapters by heart! the periods are become *congenial* to them;—the sound of them is the sound of religion itself.

From this passage the reader will begin to perceive, that Dr. H. is no friend to *direct* innovations, or any violent enemy to a *little* superstition.

Next follow two original and excellent chapters on the method of reading and applying the Scriptures. The words of Scripture, it is remarked, should be interpreted, as we should interpret like words in common life, with due attention to the circumstances of

* State 1. p. 565, and conclusion of his annual accounts.

† Dr. Campbell's, Mr. Wakefield's, &c. &c.

those to whom they were immediately addressed, to allusions to customs, and implied limitations; and they should be applied to ourselves, with a due consideration of the diversity of situations, and of the general principles of morals and dictates of prudence.

Having thus far treated on the manner of attaining the true sense of the Scriptures, Dr. H. enters upon a course of lectures to establish their divine authority. The terms *genuine*, *authentic*, *canonical*, &c., are explained. The apocryphal and spurious gospels, &c. are mentioned, and cleared away. On the genuineness and identity of the books of the New Testament, the student is referred to Lardner, of whose great work a general account is given, and to whom Dr. H. bears the following honourable testimony.

P. 104.—⁴ The manner of this writer gives me *pleasure*, as well as satisfaction; he is clear, easy, accurate, and candid: he has been * called “the *laborious* Lardner,” and laborious he must have been; but yet he never seems to me to *labeur*; he is always smooth and unembarrassed; you go through a volume without feeling any fatigue; reading half a pamphlet of some men’s writing, would require a much greater effort. I would observe of him, more particularly, that, when he quotes a passage out of an ancient *father*, you are at first shocked and disgusted with something superstitious or weak in it; but, when he comes to take it to pieces, and shew the circumstances in which it was written, you recover your feelings, and generally your esteem for the *father*; for, if you still think the passage faulty in itself, in some respects, you have learnt how to make proper allowances.⁵

Judicious hints are given concerning the use of the *fathers*; and it is fairly acknowledged, that we ought to be very cautious of adopting any accounts of the tenets of heretics from their adversaries, and that the cases are much too numerous, in which this caution may be useful. The nature and value of the testimonies of *friends* and *enemies* to the books of the New Testament are stated, and the student is directed to further sources of information. Arguments for the genuineness of these books are, next, drawn from internal characters; from the circumstances of the writers, from a comparison of the gospel-miracles with those of subsequent periods, from incidents, manners, sentiments, and expressions found in the gospels, and from the agreement of the different evangelists with each other.

Observations, on the evidence which a book may contain in itself of the truth of facts related in it, introduce a full discussion of the credibility of miracles, in which the author has bestowed much attention upon Mr. Hume’s objection. The sum of his refutation is, that Mr. Hume’s argument depends upon the strength of *analogy*, and the weakness of *testimony*, and is only this, that testimony cannot prove a transgression of the law of nature; that these are not rightly opposed one to the other; that analogy is much weaker in itself, and testimony much stronger in itself, than

* By Bp. Hallifax. Lardner himself uses “*laborious*” as a compliment; to Warburton and others.⁶

Mr. Hume allows; that any analogy is liable to be interrupted by other analogies, and to be weakened or destroyed by change of circumstances; that extraordinary cases are always likely to be accompanied by extraordinary measures; and that the regularity of the movements and operations of nature may answer all it's purposes, though something supernatural be performed on the publication of such a religion as the christian. To this theoretical discussion succeeds an examination of the credibility of the witnesses recorded in the New Testament. Here the witnesses are considered with respect to their ability, their intention, and their number. The truth of the miracles being established, it is inquired, whether they really prove the purpose of God to instruct mankind by those who perform them, and the marks of true and false miracles are specified.

On the subject of prophecies, Dr. H. assigns reasons for their obscurity; obviates difficulties attending the interpretation of those concerning the Messiah; supports the notion of a double sense in the prophecies, and of types; and vindicates the manner in which the Old Testament is quoted in the New. We meet with little original matter in this part of the work.

The first propagation of the christian religion furnishes another argument for the divine original of christianity, on which our lecturer discourses largely and ingeniously. The state of toleration among the romans is considered; the facts respecting the early persecutions of christians are examined; the difficulties attending the propagation of the Gospel are stated; and the improbability of it's success, except on the supposition of it's truth, is inferred. This part of the work concludes with a view of the necessity of revelation, arising from the state of religion and morals prior to the time of Christ, and of the tendency of christianity to produce a beneficial change in opinions and manners.

Through the whole of these lectures on the evidences of christianity, Dr. H.'s object seems to be, not so much to give a complete summary of the arguments, as to put his pupils into a train of thinking, and to direct them in the method of studying upon the subject: and the lectures are well adapted to these purposes.

A large appendix to the *first book* contains a well digested account of early sects, or heresies, of christians, in which Lardner appears to have been the doctor's principal guide.

Divinity, as common to all christians, having been considered in the *first book*, the *second* treats on polemical divinity;—the nature and effects of controversy; the qualities of a controversialist; the use of ridicule in controversy; and the canons, or laws of controversy. In controversy Dr. H. supposes three characters; two advocates, and a judge: the excellencies and the faults of controversialists, under each of these characters, are distinctly described; and useful hints are offered, on the various ways of *missing the question*, and the various modes of *presumption*, or *carelessness*, in disputation. The good sense and candour of the author's remarks on this subject induce us to present our readers with an extract.

P. 407.—' We find amongst disputants various ways of *missing the question*. In order that a controversy should subist, there must be

be supposed some proposition laid down, which one side takes in the *affirmative* sente, the other in the *negative*: I apprehend, all questions might be put into this *form*.—Now, if we have *no ideas* to such proposition, we cannot affirm or deny any thing about it; and therefore the *whole* dispute, in such case, may be looked upon as missing the question: disputes of this nature are merely *verbal*: that is, controversies about unintelligible doctrines, are controversies about nothing.—Notwithstanding this, there may be some intelligible disputes *relating* to unintelligible doctrines; as, concerning expressions of Scripture, on which such doctrines are founded;—but the fault of which we are speaking, has place at any time, when men speak without ideas, as if they had distinct conceptions.—Sometimes, the use of learned *terms* is apt to make men deceive themselves, and take for granted, that they have ideas, because they use high-sounding words.

‘ Sometimes, disputants miss the question, by supposing a question to be more extensive than it is; or by getting beyond the *limits* of that, which is properly in agitation:—as when, in disputing about the use of ceremonies or habits in religious worship, they urge arguments, as if the question was about the use of religious worship.—To this there may be an opposite fault, which must consist in arguing, as if the subject were *less* extensive than it really is; as if, for instance, the question was only about the rights of a single individual, when it really affects every individual; or the whole Church of Christ.

‘ Another way of missing the question is, urging that such an opinion is held by some person generally disapproved, instead of proving that the opinion is false.—“ This is the doctrine of Spinoza, Toland, Tindal, Hobbes, Hume; ” so say disputants, insinuating thereby, that it is to be reprobated: as if there was any of these writers, who had not written many truths.—The question is not, whether Mr. Hume wrote such an opinion, but whether it is true.

‘ We find amongst controversialists various modes of presumptuous confidence, or taking opinions for granted, or want of carefulness about running into falsehood and error.

‘ They will sometimes presume so much upon the truth of their own tenets, that they will defend them by arguments, which they themselves think inconclusive. The danger of this is well described by Dr. Powell. Something of this sort, we formerly said, was once allowed amongst christians, and called disputing *nat' gixorizv*.

‘ It is frequently seen, that men use arrogant language, and declamatory expressions, setting aside all doubt, that the truth is on their side. But why may not their adversaries do the same? and, if they do, one arrogant and declamatory expression is as good as another; and they all together are so many hindrances to the settlement of the truth. It is sometimes found, that people even commend declamatory expressions on their own side, as if what they hold for truth must be acknowledged truth. But this is not of the nature of regular contention, even amongst enemies. Though every one reckons himself in the right, and his enemy in the wrong, when he declares war, yet, in carrying on war,
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one party is to be esteemed as much in the right as another: no one party must use any mode of attack, which he will not allow to be used against himself. The rules for carrying on contention do not at all intermeddle with the question, who was right in beginning contention. Bigotry is being so blindly attached to one religious persuasion, as to think, that it is to be inforced by all methods whatsoever: by methods, which would be thought very oppressive, if made use of to inforce some different persuasion.

Want of diffidence makes disputants forget, that we may have a probability to *act* upon, and yet be very far from certainty; whatever is only probable may be false, and yet superior probability, however trifling the superiority, is sufficient to determine our action. Though men, therefore, may have evidence enough to act upon, they may not have enough to entitle them to insult others, or triumph over them, as being certainly in error. Indeed, those who are clearly convinced, seldom insult: satisfied with themselves, they are kind and candid to others.

The second sort of faults observable in controversies is that, by which a man does something wrong towards his adversary. The faults of this class have here been said to be all different species of *hostilities*; all hostilities are faults, where no hostility is necessary.

We have already mentioned the folly of using expressions on one side, which may be used with equal right on the other, as not forwarding, but rather hindering the settlement of truth; and what was said may serve to shew the fault of using any unfair methods of attack; of doing any thing against an adversary, and blaming him for doing the same in return. Several hostilities being of this kind, this idea may accompany the mention of them.

It is a common fault of controversy, to run into *personal* reflexions; to endeavour to throw disgrace upon a cause, by disgracing those who defend it. If the person of an adversary can be made contemptible, or odious, it is reckoned a great thing; and therefore all sinister *motives* are ascribed to him. Sometimes, the reviling is made to extend to his profession, his family, his country; as if defects in these, or in himself, could make his arguments defective.—Sometimes, in religious controversy, the solemn duty of prayer has been made the vehicle of derraction.—In other things, the same persons would not run into the same absurdities; they would listen to arguments, abstracted from all personal considerations, if even a murderer was to urge any in his own defence.

It is also a common fault, to charge upon an adversary *consequences* drawn from his doctrines, as if he professed those consequences, as much as the doctrines from which they were drawn. Yet it may be easily understood, that, if I do not acknowledge a deduced doctrine or maxim to be true, whatever evil there may be in it, I am free from that evil at present. Perhaps, sometimes, the deduced doctrine may be of a dangerous sort; so that a person

might wish to hold it secretly; still, till I shew some marks of holding it, I cannot be justly charged as its favourer.

‘ It is a common fault in controversy, to throw odium upon an argument, by referring it to an odious *party*. “ This is rank popery;” or, “ it is reviving the scepticism of *Pyrrho*, the fatality of the *stoicks*,” &c.—as if no man thought for himself, independently of party.

‘ This approaches near to what was before mentioned, as a mode of mising the question in debate; and it may be observed, of the other faults towards the adversary, that there is inaccuracy in them, as well as malevolence.

‘ By the combination of these faults, we find controversy, especially in books, very different from what it ought to be: a kind of illiberal scolding and fighting, a mutual buffeting of reputations: sometimes, a mere effusion of personal enmity; sometimes, a wretched disingenuous trial of skill, a literary prize-fighting, exhibited to certain spectators, who afford it their attention: the prize, perhaps, a few followers, or a little applause; or, possibly, the patronage of some powerful bigots, who have rewards to bestow.

On the subject of ridicule, our professor has an hypothesis of his own.

P. 419.—‘ A sense of ridicule, or laughter, arises, when two currents of feelings meet suddenly in the mind, striking the *moral sense*, and by their concourse make an effect on the mind (and therefore on the *nerves*) resembling the confusion and *ebullition* caused by the meeting of two real currents; and still more of two currents of fluids, which *effervesce*, and repel each other.—Out of this hypothesis we must never leave the moral sense: there must be some shock or surprize upon that; and such shock must be of a limited strength.—If an opposition of two trains of thought is, in any case, much expected, then a sudden, unexpected *coincidence*, may give the moral shock, and excite laughter.’

According to this theory, to ridicule a subject, p. 426, ‘ is to give two different views of it, at the same time, which shall excite opposite feelings; one view shall excite some sort of respect, or approbation, the other some sort of disrespect or disapprobation, which shall be rather predominant. The mind shall attend to both views, and experience the joint effect of both feelings, which shall be a shock upon the moral sense, or sense of propriety, decency, &c.—but not strong beyond a certain degree.’

Ridicule Dr. H. considers as *comic eloquence*; and he is of opinion, that it may be useful to truth and virtue, when it is well-founded, and conducted with a due regard to the state of society. Upon this subject, as well as upon the laws of controversy, our lecturer has many ingenious remarks, and happy illustrations. Though we cannot approve of his project of a *synod* to institute a code of laws for controversialists, we have, nevertheless, on the whole, read this part of the work with great pleasure, and think it well calculated to correct many pernicious errors in the present mode of conducting controversy.

Dr. H., in this second book, casually hints his opinions concerning the necessity of religious establishments, and the use of creeds

creeds and ceremonies, and on the propriety of complying, *as one of the people*, with instituted forms.

P. 437.—‘When I am in my study,’ says he, ‘and thinking of a subject within my profession, I look upon myself as bound to search for truth, simply, plainly, and without reserve; to take no doctrines on trust; I am there the philosopher; (a lover of wisdom no one need be afraid to call himself;)—when I go to church for public worship, I am one of the people, a mere man, making use of the establishment, to which I belong, of its doctrines and its ceremonies, to excite in my mind right sentiments, for the purposes of life and action. I am neither theologian, nor critic; if I had a much meaner opinion of Sternhold and Hopkins than I at present have, I could sing their Psalms with devotion and edification.—And, surely, if a divine makes himself one of the people in religious assemblies, much more should a lawyer, a physician, a statesman; indeed, if they are treated as philosophers in law, physic, and politics, so ought a divine to be in religion: it will never improve mankind, to have more done on the authority of lawyers and physicians, in law and physic, than on the authority of divines, in religion. The *Religio Laici** should be founded on the authority of divines, as much as the regimen of a sick person on that of physicians.’

On these subjects, the doctor entertains some novel and singular opinions, which he unfolds at large in his *third* and *fourth* books, and of which it will be our duty to give our readers a more particular account, than can be comprised within the proper limits of the present article.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XIII. *The Injustice of classing Unitarians with Deists and Infidels. A Discourse written with Reference to some Reflections from the Pens of Bishops Newton, Hurd, and Horley, Doctors White, Knox, and Fuller, Mrs. Piozzi, and others: and delivered at Tiverton, July 5, 1797, before the Society of Unitarian Christians, established in the West of England, for promoting Christian Knowledge, and the Practice of Virtue, by the Distribution of Books. To which is prefixed A Letter to W. Wilberforce, Esq. occasioned by some Passages in his late “Practical View.”* By Joshua Toulmin, D. D. 12mo. 48 pa. Pr. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

THE art of blasting the reputation of a sect, as well as of an individual, by giving it a foul name, so perfectly understood in the early ages of christianity, is not yet lost. Though the sting of the opprobrious names of *heretic* and *schismatic* has almost lost its venom, there are other names yet left, with which the guardians of the orthodox faith can still sufficiently annoy its opponents. Antitrinitarians may still be *stigmatised* by calling them *deists* and *infidels*. Of this treatment Dr. T., in behalf of the whole body of unitarians, in this discourse, complains. Several passages, quoted at length from the writings of authors mentioned in the title page, are the Dr.’s vouchers

* * Title of lord Herbert’s book.

for the truth of his complaint. In refutation of the charge, it is observed, that the distinguishing tenets of unitarians are not incompatible with the most serious conviction of the truth, and divine authority of the Gospel; that unitarians receive, with as full conviction as other christians, the discriminating, fundamental principle of the Gospel, that Jesus was sent from God; that they hold the peculiar principle of christianity with greater advantage to it's cause than other christians, because they profess it in greater simplicity; and that they are not unworthy of the christian name in their temper and conduct. He who receives the Scriptures as the *history* of a revelation related by credible witnesses is as sincerely a christian, as he who receives them as throughout dictated by inspiration: and the unitarian, finding nothing in the doctrines of Scripture which shocks his reason, will the more easily admit their divine original, and make converts to christianity.

By this system, says Dr. T., *r. 26.*—‘ we remove a great stumbling-block in the way of the reception of christianity. Even heathens have derided the Christians’ doctrine of a *mortal God*; and upon that account have looked upon christianity as fabulous. Dr. Casaubon, a learned divine of Geneva, almost two centuries since, said, that he could prove, by many instances out of history, that the doctrine of the trinity had kept more people from the christian faith, than any other thing he knew of. It will be readily granted, that we are not to discard the truths of God, because they may be offensive to weak and prejudiced minds. But, surely, we should be cautious how we admit and defend, *as such*, any principles that may disgust others without *full evidence* for them; lest we bring on ourselves the woe denounced against those by whom offences, or occasions of rejecting the Gospel, do come. We conceive, that we are safe only when we keep close to the explicit declarations of Scripture, and preserve its simplicity.

• On this principle our religious worship is formed. We ask temporal and spiritual blessings of the FATHER only. Our prayers and our doxologies are addressed solely to the GOD and FATHER, in the name of Jesus Christ. In this respect, it has been justly observed, “ we have a particular claim to the Candor of our fellow christians, as our devotional services are such as any other christians may join in.” Our adherence to the scriptural simplicity, in this instance, conduces not only to purity but to union. “ Were liturgies and public forms of service so framed,” says the ever memorable John Hales, “ as that they admitted not of particular and private fancies, but contained only such things, in which all christians do agree, schisms on opinion were utterly vanished. For consider of all the liturgies that are, or ever have been, and remove from them whatsoever is scandalous to any party, and leave nothing but what all agree on, and the event shall be, that the public service and honour of God shall no ways suffer: whereas, to load our public forms, with private fancies upon which we differ, is the most sovereign way to perpetuate schism unto the world’s end.”

• * Dr. Priestley’s Sermon, on Unitarianism, at Philadelphia, 1796. Pref. p. 8.

• † Tract on Schisms, “in his works, vol. 1. p. 126. Glasgow edit.”

By similar arguments Dr. T., in his prefatory letter, vindicates unitarianism from the charges brought against it by Mr. Wilberforce, that "it is a sort of half-way house between orthodoxy and infidelity, and that it is resorted to as a refuge from the strictness of the practical precepts of christianity." This system, the author observes, "hath the evidences of Christ's divine mission for the support of it's faith and hope;" and "if any have recourse to the unitarian creed as indulgent to looser morals, they must be strangely ignorant of it's nature."

The pamphlet is a temperate and candid apology for unitarians, against the particular charge specified in the title.

ART. xiv. *The Duty of Clerical Residence stated and enforced. A Charge delivered at the Primary Visitation of the Province of Ulster, in the Year 1796.* By William Newcome, D. D. Member of the Royal Irish Academy, and Archbishop of Armagh. 8vo. 40 pa. Pr. 1s. Johnson. 1797.

THE writings and character of this learned, liberal, and truly respectable metropolitan are too well known, to require particular eulogy. In the present address to the clergy of the province of Ulster, archbishop N. judiciously declines all those topics of inflammatory declamation, which the present state of public affairs, both political and religious, might suggest, and directs their attention to a subject, which is of universal importance, as the foundation of all other ecclesiastical duties, clerical residence. The obligations to this duty are clearly and fully stated, from Scripture, from the form of ordination, and from the reasonableness and utility of the practice. In an appendix are added extracts from various writers, and from those statutes and ecclesiastical canons which have a relation to this subject. The publication may justly claim the attention of every clergyman, whether resident or non-resident.

ART. xv. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Rochester; and published at their Request.* By John Law, D. D. Archdeacon of Rochester. 4to. 20 pages. Price 1s. Payne. 1797.

WE have not perused this charge, without admiring the good-sense, and the candid spirit, which it discovers. The judicious writer is aware of the folly and impiety of rash interpretations of divine judgments, and avoids an invidious comparison of the relative merits of different nations. From the recent history of France he infers the necessity of inculcating the religious principle; but he admits, that religious systems are only valuable in proportion as they are pure; and he considers the present apparent extinction of the christian faith in France, as a part of the plan of divine providence for restoring it to it's original simplicity. The archdeacon's observations on this subject well deserve the attention of our readers:

P. 13.—The nominal reception of the purest system of faith is of little use, if it be not attended with correspondent effects: and should the clearness and excellence of this system be entirely obscured and vitiated by the intermixture of error and corruption, a question may perhaps arise, whether its utter extirpation would not be as advantageous as the retaining of it? If, indeed, it is not to be succeeded by a more perfect form, or if atheism is to be substituted for a corrupt belief,

belief, the mind will have cause to hesitate in acceding to the propriety of the exchange; but no absolute conclusion will be made from a partial view of things; and if the apparent extinction of the christian faith, or the discouragements that it meets with, are naturally to be deplored, the wise and good man will solace himself with the persuasion, " that the fierceness of man shall turn to the praise of the Lord," and shall effect the very design that it intended to overthrow. Impressed with this belief, he does not despond under any circumstances, how calamitous soever they may seem, but is inclined rather to derive good from them.

* And while some, with pious zeal, have bewailed the unhappy change in the religious sentiments of a neighbouring kingdom, it has been supposed by others, equally ardent in the cause of piety, that the monstrous errors of a corrupted church could not have been so effectually removed, as by the arrogance of infidelity. Often has it been observed, that many of the doctrines of the romish church disgusted the wise reasoners of the world, and led them, from attending only to the absurd notions and practices of that church, to think lightly of religion itself. Hence these men attempted to undermine all revelation, while the bulk of mankind, though they laudably resisted this attempt, were still eager to retain the erroneous tenets and idle rites of a long subsisting establishment, and thereby obstructed that temperate and judicious reformation, which the good sense and rational piety of the english church long since successfully adopted.

* It is possible then, that the desired and necessary amendment in the belief and practice of the nation now referred to, could alone have been wrought by the violence into which it has run: and though the offences of the advocates of infidelity are not hence lessened, yet eventually their pernicious and destructive aims may promote the very object, which they profanely have striven to defeat.

The charge concludes with a serious exhortation to the clergy, to counteract the efforts of the enemies of religion, ' by fair reasoning and temperate argument,' and by the powerful influence of a good example. Such a temperate charge, delivered in these times, and in the diocese of Rochester, may be admired as a *rara avis*.

ART. XVI. *The Excellency of the Liturgy, and the Advantages of being Educated in the Doctrine and Principles of the Church of England. A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary-le-Bow, London, April 25, 1797, according to the last Will of Mr. John Hutchins, Citizen and Goldsmith. By the Rev. W. Van Mildert, M.A. Rector of St. Mary-le-Bow, London. 4to. 20 pages. Price 1s. Dilly. 1797.*

The annual panegyric, which the legacy of citizen John Hutchins inspires, will, probably, soon become as much a matter of form, and consequently as vapid, as a birth-day ode. At present, however, we have no reason to complain of the want of fire in these performances. The ' stirring spirit' of the times has kindled in the present orator a degree of zeal for the ancient religious establishment of this country, and of resentment against reformers, sufficient to secure his discourse from the charge of insipidity. The compilers of the liturgy Mr. Van M. extols, as men free from the hostility of party prejudice;

judice; and the liturgy, as a most valuable repository of christian knowledge, upon the preservation of which, in it's present improved state, must depend, in a great measure, the preservation of the church of England. Much is said, concerning the moral influence of this manual of devotion on the minds of children and young persons, which we readily admit; but we may be allowed to question, whether this effect would not be increased, rather than diminished, by purging it of scholastic mysticism.

ART. XVII. *A Sermon on Suicide, preached at St. Botolph's, Bishoptgate, at an Anniversary of the Royal Humane Society, on Sunday the 26th Day of March, 1797.* By G. Gregory, D.D. Author of Essays Historical and moral, The Economy of Nature, &c. with an Appendix, containing a brief Account of some of the most remarkable Cases of Suicide, which have fallen under the Cognizance of the Society; the Process for restoring Animation in such Cases; and Two Odes recited at the Anniversary Festival. 8vo. 48 pages. Price 1s. Dilly. 1797.

THE propriety of the title, assumed by the Society, at the anniversary of which this sermon was preached, will not be doubted: of it's utility to the public no other proof needs be given, than it's own report, that the lives of *two thousand one hundred and eighty five* persons have been, in consequence of this charitable institution, preserved and restored. One important branch of the benevolence of this society is directed towards the restoration of life in cases of suicide; and of five hundred such cases, which have fallen under it's notice, about *three hundred and fifty* have been recovered. Dr. Gregory has very properly made this branch of the charity the object of his particular attention, in an excellent discourse, in which he has forcibly represented the heinous nature of the crime of suicide, and distinctly enumerated the causes of it's prevalence. Among these causes he justly reckons the decline of the religious principle; but he should not have omitted the contrary extreme, religious melancholy. In his preface and notes, Dr. G. inveighs with more than befitting vehemence against infidels. 'Their principles,' he may 'abhor,' but he has no right to 'despise their talents:' and the appellations of 'cold-blooded infidel,' and 'detestable author,' were surely sufficient to apply to Mr. Hume, without adding, 'Of all men that ever lived, Mr. Hume is the only one, of whom I never heard a single good and benevolent action.'

The appendix states many surprising facts; and the odes are poetical.

M. D.

POETRY.

ART. XVIII. *Walter and William, an Historical Ballad, translated from the Original Poem of Richard Cœur de Lion.* 2d. Edit. 8vo. 28 pages. Boosey. 1797.

IN a pert preface, the translator, as he calls himself, of this poem, observes, that ‘ the man who attempts to demonstrate an axiom, commonly concludes his labours with leaving the subject more involved than he found it. Such would be our situation,’ he adds, in a tone of infinite modesty, ‘ were we to add any illustration of the authenticity of this poem.’ And does he really think, that we shall place implicit confidence in the assertion of an anonymous writer, when he tells us, that he has discovered the literary bantling of a royal author who lived six centuries ago? But it seems, that, ‘ contrary to his general usage of the french tongue, Richard composed this poem—his master-piece—in German. *This circumstance accounts for the obscurity into which it had fallen, &c.*’ Our readers should be informed, that the translator is indebted to the kind assistance of a learned german professor, for the restoration to the world of this ‘ noble monument of Richard’s greatness.’ Without some further acquaintance with this ‘ learned german professor,’ or our learned german translator, or the original of the translation, we must take the liberty of giving it as our opinion, that the piece is not authentic. As to it’s merits, had it come before us without so pompous an introduction, we should have said the story was prettily told, and the ballad rather above than below mediocrity. The author had evidently Buerger’s Lenora in view, and says, with all the coolness and address imaginable, ‘ if in the perusal of this poem, the reader should perceive any passage that bears an analogy to any passage which the works of a more modern poet contains, let him not rashly score down the latter as an imitator or a plagiarist; but let him consider whether the preceding circumstances do not naturally lead the mind into the same channel.’ But we have, probably, said enough on this subject to satisfy our readers.

ART. xix. *Select Epigrams.* In Two Vols. Small 8vo. 350 p.
Price 9s. in boards. Low. 1797.

IT is impossible, in a miscellaneous collection of this sort, that epigrams of unequal merit should not find admission. The object of these volumes is undoubtedly to amuse an idle hour, and it was incumbent on the editor to anticipate, as well as he could, and provide for the various tastes of various readers. He has given us, at the beginning, a list of the authors of the greater part of these epigrams. The names of Chesterfield, Lyttleton, Warton, Garrick, Cowper, Aikin, Walcot, &c. will give our readers assurance that much wit and satire are interspersed. Many anonymous *jeux d'esprit* are inserted, and where any allusion is obscure, the editor has frequently explained it by a short and judicious note; the volumes are very neatly printed, and we have not discovered that they contain any thing licentious or indelicate.

ART. xx. *The Age of Folly, a Poem.* 4to. 32 pages. Price 2s.
Clarke.

We should have expected a satire on the follies of the day to have abounded with incident and anecdote; the poem before

us is destitute of both, and though some of the lines run smoothly from the tongue, in general they have not much melody to recommend them.

ART. XXI. *A Trip to Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight, from London, in rambling Verses. Dedicated to the Officers, and Seamen, and those acting with them on board the Navy.* By a Friend to Britain. 8vo. 52 pages. Edinburgh, Dickson; London, No. 12, Ave Maria Lane. 1797.

This is such sorry stuff, that the less of our readers time we waste on it the better.

D. M.

NATURAL HISTORY.

ART. XXII. *A Memoir concerning the fascinating Faculty which has been ascribed to the Rattle Snake, and other American Serpents.* By Benj. Smith Barton, M. D., &c. 8vo. 70 pages. Price 2s. Philadelphia printed. 1796.

THERE is, perhaps, no way in which more service can be rendered to society, than by the dissipation and removal of those popular prejudices, which have long fettered the understandings of mankind. This well-written memoir of professor Barton, by exposing the weakness and absurdity of the notion that serpents possess the power of fascinating other animals, must have considerable influence in shaking those conclusions, which the credulity of naturalists, as well as of the people in general, have too long cherished and supported. The existence of such a strong propensity to propagate errors of this kind, in the more uninformed part of our species, the ingenious author thinks, is not in the least extraordinary, or to be wondered at. The cause is too clear and obvious, to admit of much surprise.

P. II.—‘ The human mind, unenlightened by science, or by considerable reflection, is a soil rich in the weeds of superstition and credulity. It is ever prone to believe in the wonderful, even when this belief, as is often the case, brings with it fears, and cares, and misery. The bondage of the mind in superstitious credulity is great and heavy. Neither religion nor virtue can give it its freedom. This it obtains from science. How important, then, even in this point of view, is the enlargement of the mind by science !’

But that men of observation, understanding, and genius should entertain such extravagant opinions, the doctor considers as a circumstance of great astonishment, and which deserves more investigation than it has hitherto received. It is probable, however, that if the matter were fully inquired into, it would be found to originate pretty much from the same causes. In men of information, as well as those whose habits of life lead them to think but little on subjects of this nature, the same inertia, or want of inclination to examine with minuteness opinions, that have been handed down from one author to another for a great length of time, is frequently observable.

observable. And naturalists have not been more free from this mental inactivity, or want of disposition to ascertain the truth, than others. From this cause, and in this way, many of those popular errors and absurd notions, which lessen the dignity of the human character, seem to have been propagated and continued. A careful examination of the different facts and circumstances must at any time have placed the matter in it's true point of view, however the notions might at first have arisen.

On this point Dr. B. remarks:

P. 18.—‘ It seems very probable to me, that the veneration for the rattle snake had its birth in fear, and not in the belief that this reptile possessed the power of fascinating animals. If, as some writers have asserted, the indians were in possession of absolute specificks for the bite of the rattle-snake, I am of opinion that the veneration for this animal would not have existed; or, at least, that it would not long have continued. But the indians are often unable to prevent or to cure the effects of the active poison of this serpent, which not unfrequently destroys them.’

He has found no traces of the existence of this notion among the indians of South America: and Piso the historian, has not mentioned a single circumstance respecting the matter. Therefore says our author,

P. 20.—‘ Whatever may have been the native country of the notion which I am considering, it would have been well had it been confined to savages. It is a tale which seems nicely adapted to the wit and society of rude and uncultivated nations. Unfortunately, the progress of error and of credulity is extremely rapid. Their dominion is extensive. The belief in the fascinating faculty of serpents has spread through almost all the civilized parts of North America. Nor is it confined to America. It has made its way into Europe, and has there taken possession of the minds of scholars, of naturalists, and of philosophers.’

The opinions and conclusions of Mr. de la Cépède are examined with great candour and fairness; and the doctor with much justice rejects them as incompetent to the solution of the question. This has been our opinion of the reasonings of this ingenious naturalist, ever since we first examined them.

The birds, which are generally said to be most under the power of snakes, Dr. B. has found to be those that build their nests on the ground, on the lower branches of trees, or on low bushes, near the sides of rivers, creeks, and waters frequented by different kinds of serpents. The season of the year, too, in which this influence has been said to be the greatest, he has also found to be that in which the birds are either laying their eggs, hatching, or rearing their young. Hence he ingeniously suspects, that the cries and fears of birds, supposed to be fascinated, originate from an endeavour to protect their nests or young.

P. 57.—‘ I have already observed, that the rattle-snake does not climb up trees. But the black-snake and some other species of the genus coluber do. When impelled by hunger, and incapable of satisfying it by the capture of animals on the ground, they begin to glide up trees or bushes, upon which a bird has its nest. The bird

bird is not ignorant of the serpent's object. She leaves her nest, whether it contains eggs or young ones, and endeavours to oppose the reptile's progress. In doing this, she is actuated by the strength of her instinctive attachment to her eggs, or of affection to her young. Her cry is melancholy, her motions are tremulous. She exposes herself to the most imminent danger. Sometimes, she approaches so near the reptile that he seizes her as his prey. But this is far from being universally the case. Often, she compels the serpent to leave the tree, and then returns to her nest.

It is a well known fact, that among some species of birds, the female, at a certain period, is accustomed to compel the young ones to leave the nest; that is, when the young have acquired so much strength that they are no longer entitled to *all* her care. But they still claim some of her care. Their flights are awkward, and soon broken by fatigue. They fall to the ground, where they are frequently exposed to the attacks of the serpent, which attempts to devour them. In this situation of affairs, the mother will place herself upon a branch of a tree, or bush, in the vicinity of the serpent. She will dart upon the serpent, in order to prevent the destruction of her young: but fear, the instinct of self-preservation, will compel her to retire. She leaves the serpent, however, but for a short time, and then returns again. Oftentimes, she prevents the destruction of her young, attacking the snake, with her wing, her beak, or her claws. Should the reptile succeed in capturing the young, the mother is exposed to less danger. For, whilst engaged in swallowing them, he has neither inclination nor power to seize upon the old one. But the appetite of the serpent-tribe is great: the capacity of their stomachs is not less so. The danger of the mother is at hand, when the young are devoured. The snake seizes upon her: and this is the catastrophe, which crowns the tale of fascination!'

In this interesting paper, the author has shown much ingenuity of reasoning, and acuteness of observation, with a mind strongly bent on the investigation of truth.

A. R.

POLITICS. POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. XXIII. *Three Memorials on French Affairs. Written in the Years 1791, 1792, and 1793.* By the late Right Hon. Edmund Burke. 8vo. 244 pages. Price 3s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1797.

THE legal representatives of the late Mr. B., considering themselves alike the guardians of his property and his fame, have determined to publish every thing he has left behind him, fit for the public eye, and in due time to furnish a life of the author, with a complete edition of his works. In this we greatly rejoice. Not only, because we think, that much information is to be collected from the productions of his rich and vigorous mind; but because the man of taste and sensibility will always find a banquet in his glowing and impressive eloquence. The eloquence of Cicero is admired, after the subject and occasion of it have ceased to interest. The eloquence of Burke, equally fascinating, has this advantage,

vantage, that it is employed on events which will determine the fate of Europe, the influence of which will continue to be felt, and the circumstances of which can never be forgotten.

It belongs to future ages to determine upon the justness of his observations, the wisdom or folly of his plans: for they will experience the fulfilment of his predictions; or know the falsehood of his statements, from the happy influence of the principles he denounces, as the pests of human society, and the canker of life: and to them we refer the decision.

This pamphlet contains, from the pen of Mr. B., three memorials, and some short hints for a memorial, which he wished to have been delivered to Mr. Montmorin by lord Gower, before he left Paris, after the first tumults of the revolution. In these hints for the first memorial, the king of Great Britain is made to offer the interposition of his good offices towards a reconciliation of the unhappy differences that then existed in France, and to declare that he offers his royal mediation,

P. *3.—‘ With an unaffected desire and full resolution, to consider the settlement of a free constitution in France, as the very basis of any agreement between the sovereign and those of his subjects who are unhappily at variance with him; to guarantee it to them, if it should be desired, in the most solemn and authentic manner, and to do all that in him lies to procure the like guarantee from other powers.’

Should no attention be paid to this memorial, it announces the departure of our ambassador from the court of France.

It is the opinion of the writer of the preface, that these hints were never actually seen by the king’s ministers.

The three following memorials go to one point. Their object is to urge the powers of Europe to unite, and to direct all their force against the republic of France, to crush it’s power, to destroy it’s principle, and to re-establish monarchy in that country.

Mr. B. thus would set the world on fire, for the accomplishment of a great purpose indeed: but before so much destruction should be recommended, he ought to have discussed with more attention, we think, or laid down some plain principle by which we might have discovered, how the powers of Europe are warranted in such an undertaking, and what *preponderating good* to the human race would be the result of this enterprize.

It is not enough for him to prove from the writings of the most celebrated publicists, that one nation has a right to interfere in the internal government of another nation, ‘ which shall make an open profession of trampling justice under foot, of despising and violating the right of others,’ which he would represent to be the character of the french, ‘ because they acknowledge no power not directly emanating from the people.’ He must prove, in order to justify the bloody and mighty movement he recommends, that monarchy is the form of government prescribed by the Deity, or that it is the only form of government in which men can live with any safety or comfort. Indeed, were one, or even both, of these positions proved, it would remain yet to be examined, whether *war* be the only and valid mean of establishing that form of government in France.

With

With respect to the divine ordination of monarchy, although Mr. B., all along, states republicanism and the rights of men as founded essentially in atheism, yet he does not assert monarchy to be a *divine* institution. So important are the events in their establishment, and so general the influence of different governments, that we freely confess we have looked with disappointment and wonder into the page of inspiration for information on these subjects; as it seems reasonable to expect, that we should rather be left to discover our duties, in cases where the influence of conduct is obvious and direct, than to determine concerning a system of government, the influence of which is so wide, so various, and so complex, by the uncertain conclusions of the narrow understanding of man concerning its *tendency*. Mr. B. however, who is said, in the preface, to have founded and bottomed his political, on his moral philosophy, has plainly enough declared his fundamental principle, the *test* to which all governments must be brought to prove their legitimate existence.

'I cannot think,' says he, p. 111, 'that what is done in France is beneficial to the human race. If it were, the English constitution ought no more to stand against it, than the antient constitution of the kingdom, in which the new system prevails.'

This then is Mr. B.'s fundamental principle of government—the good of the human race is, with him, the supreme law. This is a principle not essentially founded in atheism; but, we hope, essentially founded in true religion. He says it is not the principle of the rights of men. According then to Mr. B., monarchy is to be supported where it exists, and established where it has been pulled down, because, and only because it is 'beneficial to the human race,' because, in other words, it is the only government adapted to the condition and the wants of man.

If the reader be disposed to grant this to Mr. B.; to prove which, however, Mr. B. has spent too little time and labour; and if he be also disposed to think war the only mean of re-establishing monarchy in France, he will peruse these memorials with much pleasure.

The first of the three contains a very ingenious and beautiful illustration of the following maxim, which Mr. B. lays down, as at once true and alarming, namely, 'That, as the French revolution is a revolution of doctrine and theoretic dogma,' its effect will be, 'to introduce other interests into all countries, than those which arise from their locality and natural circumstances.'

He borrows matter for this illustration from the *reformation*, which was a revolution of religious dogma; and from the conduct of the states of Greece, which were bound to each other rather by their political doctrine, than their natural interests; the lacedemonians being at the head of the aristocratic, and the Athenians at the head of the democratic faction.

He states the following as the fundamental dogma of the French government.

P. 11.—'That the majority told, by the head, of the taxable people in every country, is the perpetual, natural, unceasing, indefeasible sovereign; that this majority is perfectly master of the form, as well as the administration of the state, and that the magistrates,

gistrates, under whatever names they are called, are only functionaries to obey the orders, (general as laws or particular as decrees) which that majority may make; that this is the only natural government; that all others are tyranny and usurpation.'

To show that in England this dogma is embraced by numbers, who are thus united to new France, rather than to old England, Mr. B. denounces, *most of the dissenters of the three denominations, with the restless who resemble them, of all ranks and all parties, the whole race of half bred speculators, all the atheists, deists, and socinians, all who hate the clergy and envy the nobility, many of the monied people, and the East Indians almost to a man, who cannot bear to find that their present importance does not bear a proportion to their wealth!* This is a long and a formidable string of proscription.

He then takes a rapid glance at the different countries of Europe, examines their state, and shows their situation to be perilous, if they do not join heart and hand in the confederacy against the new republic. The map of political Europe is familiar to our author, and he has looked into it with a penetrating eye. Having stated, in the strongest terms, his conviction of the necessity of all Europe uniting against France; he shows, such is the internal strength of the new government, that nothing is to be hoped from internal commotion, in the production of it's overthrow. The following, on this subject, are his conclusions.

P. 51.—' First, that no counter-revolution is to be expected in France from internal causes solely.

' Secondly, that the longer the present system exists, the greater will be it's strength; the greater it's power to destroy discontents at home, and to resist all foreign attempts in favour of these discontents.

' Thirdly, that as long as it exists in France, it will be the interest of the managers there, and it is the very essence of their plan, to disturb and distract all other governments, and their endless succession of restless politicians will continually stimulate them to new attempts.'

In treating of the slight danger the republic was in from a bankruptcy, Mr. B. has the following expression, remarkable for it's easy application to our own country.

' As to a bankruptcy, that event has happened long ago, as much as it is ever likely to happen. So soon as a nation compels a creditor to take paper currency in discharge of his debt, there is a bankruptcy.'

After Mr. B. has stated all the evils that exist, and all the evils that threaten all countries, if the french republic be not crushed, he asks, at the end of this memorial, what is to be done? He declines to answer the question, saying he only meant to make a *cafe*. He wishes the ministry, after an examination of his *cafe*, to apply the remedy to the evil; in the next memorial, however, the reader will find what Mr. B. himself was of opinion *ought to have been done*.

It was written in november 1792, and begins by stating, that, from it's mere geographical position, France must affect every state in Europe.

In this memorial, Mr. B. blames with vehemence the European powers, for considering the French king as an *individual*, a party of himself: he says, 'the royal party, with the king, or his representatives at its head, is the *royal cause*.' He thinks the cause of the confederated powers has been ruined, by not paying proper respect to the *royal party in France*. The powers at war rather seemed to be fighting for themselves, than for France, which created jealousies even among the most spirited and zealous of the royalists, who sought the restoration of monarchy, not the division of their country. Mr. B., we think, justly considers this as a *fundamental error*, and his observations are at once wise and striking.

P. 97.—' According to all the old principles of law and policy, a regency ought to have been appointed by the French princes of the blood, nobles, and parliaments, and then recognized by the combined powers. Fundamental law and antient usage, as well as the clear reason of the thing, have always ordained it during an imprisonment of the king of France; as in the case of John, and of Francis the First. A monarchy ought not to be left a moment without a representative, having an interest in the succession. The orders of the state, ought also to have been recognized in those amongst whom alone they existed in freedom, that is, in the emigrants.'

P. 99.—' If the *old* politick and military ideas had governed, the advanced guard would have been formed of those who best knew the country, and had some interest in it, supported by some of the best light troops and light artillery, whilst the grand solid body of an army disciplined to perfection, proceeded leisurely, and in close connexion with all its stores, provisions, and heavy cannon, to support the expedite body in case of misadventure, or to improve and compleat its success.'

' The direct contrary of all this was put in practice. In consequence of the original sin of this project, the army of the French princes was every where thrown into the rear, and no part of it brought forward to the last moment, the time of the commencement of the secret negotiation. This naturally made an ill impression on the people, and furnished an occasion for the rebels at Paris to give out that the faithful subjects of the king were distrusted, despised, and abhorred by his allies. The march was directed through a skirt of Lorraine, and thence into a part of Champagne, the duke of Brunswick leaving all the strongest places behind him; leaving also behind him, the strength of his artillery; and by this means giving a superiority to the French, in the only way in which the present France is able to oppose a German force.'

He urges the absolute necessity of the English joining in the coalition, and proposes,

P. 106.—' First, That a minister should forthwith be sent to Spain, to encourage that court to persevere in the measures they have adopted against France, to make a close alliance and guarantee of possessions, as against France, with that power, and whilst the formality of the treaty is pending, to assure them of our protection, postponing any lesser disputes to another occasion.'

' Secondly,

‘ Secondly, To assure the court of Vienna, of our desire to enter into our antient connexions with her, and to support her effectually in the war which France has declared against her.

‘ Thirdly, To animate the Swiss, and the king of Sardinia, to take a part, as the latter once did on the principles of the grand alliance.

‘ Fourthly, To put an end to our disputes with Russia, and mutually to forget the past. I believe if she is satisfied of this oblivion, she will return to her old sentiments, with regard to this court, and will take a more forward part in this busines than any other power.

‘ Fifthly, If what has happened to the king of Prussia is only in consequence of a sort of panick or of levity, and an indisposition to persevere long in one design—the support and concurrence of Russia will tend to steady him, and to give him resolution. If he be ill disposed, with that power on his back, and without one ally in Europe, I conceive he will not be easily led to derange the plan.

‘ Sixthly, To use the joint influence of our court, and of our then allied powers, with Holland, to arm as fully as she can by sea, and to make some addition by land.

‘ Seventhly, To acknowledge the king of France’s next brother (assisted by such a council and such representatives of the kingdom of France, as shall be thought proper) regent of France, and to send that prince a small supply of money, arms, cloathing and artillery.

‘ Eighthly, To give force to these negociations, an instant naval armament ought to be adopted; one squadron for the Mediterranean; another for the Channel. The season is convenient, most of our trade being, as I take it, at home.’

Mr. B. had heard, that it was in agitation to form a defensive alliance among the powers of Europe, but this he reprobates with great force, saying, that nothing but *offensive* operations can be productive of any the least advantages to the cause.

The last memorial was begun in October 1793.

Mr. B. having been informed, that it was intended to issue a manifesto, declaratory of the objects of the war, which he thought then unseasonable, wrote this memorial to dissuade the government from this measure. Here he again blames, with just severity, the neglect of the french royalists, and the not having made them a *leading party* in the contest. On this subject we have the following observation.

P. 122.—‘ The affair of the establishment of a government is a very difficult undertaking for foreign powers to act in as *principals*; though as *auxiliaries and mediators*, it has been not at all unusual, and may be a measure full of policy and humanity and true dignity.

‘ The first thing we ought to do, supposing us not giving the law as conquerors, but acting as friendly powers applied to for counsel and assistance in, the settlement of a distracted country, is well to consider the composition, nature, and temper of its subjects, and particularly of those who actually do, or who ought to exercise power

power in that state. It is material to know who they are, and how constituted, whom we ought to consider as the people of France?"

Mr. B. holds jacobinism not at all to consist in having or in not having a king, but to consist in the establishment 'of the rights of the man, and the absolute equality of the human race.' Wherever he finds this principle established, there is jacobinism. Mr. B. considered the inhabitants of Toulon as radically jacobins. 'If they were left to themselves,' (he says, p. 144.) 'I am quite sure they would not retain their attachment to monarchy of any name for a single week.' Yet do this, and various other assertions of the author, respecting the general jacobinism of the french people, appear to us to clash, with a former declaration in one of these memorials, that four fifths of the french were loyal to the king, and hated the jacobin government, from which they would be glad to take shelter under that of the emperor of Morocco. It had been proposed by some, to employ, in settling the disputes with France, men who had taken no part in the contest. This Mr. B. reprobates with great energy. On undecided characters, his observations are equally true and interesting. The following remarks on this subject, are a fair specimen of the style of this last memorial, and have been conceived in some of the author's happiest moments.

p. 161.—' Believe a man who has seen much, and observed something. I have seen in the course of my life a great many of that family of men. They are generally chosen, because they have no opinion of their own; and as far as they can be got in good earnest to embrace any opinion, it is that of whoever happens to employ them (neither longer or shorter, narrower or broader) with whom they have no discussion or consultation. The only thing which occurs to such a man when he has got a business for others into his hands, is how to make his own fortune out of it. The person he is to treat with, is not, with him, an adversary over whom he is to prevail, but a new friend he is to gain: therefore he always systematically betrays some part of his trust. Instead of thinking how he shall defend his ground to the last, and if forced to retreat, how little he shall give up, this kind of man considers how much of the interest of his employer he is to sacrifice to his adversary. Having nothing but himself in view, he knows, that in serving his principal with zeal, he must probably incur some resentment from the opposite party. His object is to obtain the good will of the person with whom he contends, that when an agreement is made, he may join in rewarding him. I would not take one of these as my arbitrator in a dispute for so much as a fish-pond—for if he reserved the mud to me, he would be sure to give the water that fed the pool, to my adversary. In a great cause I should certainly wish, that my agent should possess conciliating qualities; that he should be of a frank, open, and candid disposition, soft in his nature, and of a temper to soften animosities and to win confidence. He ought not to be a man odious to the person he treats with, by personal injury, by violence, or by deceit, or, above all, by the dereliction of his cause in any former transactions. But I would be sure that my negotiator should be *mine*, that he should be as earnest in the cause as myself, and known to be so;

that he should not be looked upon as a stipendiary advocate, but as a principled partizan. In all treaty it is a great point that all idea of gaining your agent is hopeless. I would not trust the cause of royalty with a man, who, professing neutrality, is half a republican. The enemy has already a great part of his suit without a struggle—and he contends with advantage for all the rest. The common principle allowed between your adversary and your agent, gives your adversary the advantage in every discussion.'

Of these three memorials, the first is distinguishable for great compass and variety of knowledge; the second, for wisdom of plan, for, admitting the principle, we think the plan good; and the third, for animation and energy. We do not, indeed, even in the third memorial, find that magnificence and splendour, which form so much the characteristics of some late publications of this celebrated author. It abounds not in bold and striking imagery; yet it displays a copious and powerful stream of eloquence, on which we are born away with exquisite delight. We have still to lament, that Mr. B. paid so little attention to arrangement. By the versatility of his movements, we are continually losing sight of the connecting links in his chain of reasoning. After feasting upon the rich banquet he has set before us, we lose the recollection of the dishes, and only retain a general sense of their flavour.

We consider Mr. B. as the most eloquent writer who has adorned our language; but he is far from being the most accurate. The reader, who wishes to remark the incorrectness of this great orator, we recommend to consult the following pages of this publication—11, 16, 19, 27, 51, 59, 91, 125, 185, 193.

But the faults of Mr. B. as a writer are trifling and insignificant; his excellence, great and unrivalled: his eloquence is of that species which Dr. Johnson compares to the rapid torrents in Peru, which roll down gold and sand along with them; and we can well tolerate the sand, were it even in greater quantities; for the gold is abundant and precious.

We mean, however, only to apply these remarks to Mr. B. as an orator and a writer; for to his moral, and to his political philosophy, we have much to object.

ART. XXIV. *A second Letter to the Hon. Thomas Erskine. Containing farther Strictures on his 'View of the Causes and Consequences of the War:' some Reflections on the Subject of the present Negotiation; and Observations on the late voluntary Loan. With a Word to the Critics, subjoined.* By John Gifford, Esq. Author of 'A Letter to the Earl of Lauderdale,' &c. &c. 8vo. 80 p. Price 2s. Longman. 1797.

MR. G., in this pamphlet, continues his strictures on Mr. Erskine's popular publication, and attempts to show, that, by a disregard of dates, he has misrepresented the conduct of France and England, in the commencement and continuance of hostilities. We do not say, that Mr. G. has detected no inaccuracy in Mr. Erskine's dates; but neither his present nor his former observations produce in us any conviction, that England did not *desire and seek a war with France*; not because she feared an attack from the

new

new republic, but because she was solicitous to create an occasion of invading her territory, in order to restore the ancient despotism. Posterity, who have no other documents, may puzzle themselves with the examination of dates, and the language of state manifestoes, in order to ascertain who were aggressors in a war, in which their ancestors were engaged; and they will not want convincing evidence, collected from this source, of the anxiety of England to provoke a quarrel with the french republic: but contemporaries have recollections of the spirit of the people, of the language and conduct of the partisans of the court, of their triumph when the madman Brissot moved a declaration of war, of their confidence in instant success, of their declarations that our safety depended upon the restoration of monarchy in France, and of a thousand other circumstances, which afford overwhelming evidence to every impartial man, that this is *a war of our own choice*. State manifestoes are full of ambiguity, of artful dissimulation, of hypocritical pretence; but the strong language of public conduct and public feeling favours a correct interpretation. Englishmen in France, after the revolution, were hailed as elder brothers, embraced as friends, admired as philosophers, adored as freemen by the french people! From whom then proceeded the war against the free english? He must have been a miserable observer of the times, who, living in England at the commencement of the war, entertains a doubt, whether the english ministry did not lay schemes for bringing on the war, with all the anxiety and solicitude, with which a wealthy father waits for the birth of his first born.

Although we cannot yet approve the spirit Mr. G. discovers, we must do him the justice to say, he throws about him less unhallowed fire than on his first attack.

Mr. Erskine's late zeal in the prosecution of Williams, for publishing Paine's Age of Reason, appears to have made a very favourable impression upon Mr. G. We freely confess, that we are not of those who admire that zeal. Mr. Erskine had already pronounced 'waging war against *principles*, to be a *new and fatal principle of hostility*;' and we think, to endeavour the overthrow of *principles* in the court of king's bench, is as absurd, and as *fatal*, and alas! as *new* an attempt too, for neither has any claim to novelty, as to endeavour their overthrow in a field of battle. But such is the inconsistency of man. Unbelievers have obtained, by this ridiculous zeal, a new occasion of triumph, and another name is to be added to their martyrs. Again are they exulting, that christianity has appealed to the laws, and is now to be defended, not as a divine philosophy, founded on evidence, and courting examination, but as *the law of the land*.

On one subject we entirely agree with Mr. G. We allow, that none but *virtuous men* ought ever to hold offices of trust in the state; and that all hope of public virtue should be built on *private character*. Here we can allow of no compromise. A spendthrift, a gambler, a sot, a man regardless of private obligations, and individual claims, shall never have our vote for the senate or executive office. We are for the country alone; and woe to that

people, who choose a profligate party, or profligate master, to rule them!

It is due to Mr. G., that we insert the following passage.

p. 68. ' I deem it expedient to repel it [a charge of dependence on ministry] by a solemn and unequivocal declaration, that no one person connected with ministers has had the smallest concern with any political pamphlet that I ever have composed; that I have written them all spontaneously, without any communication with others; that no part of the expence attending the publication of them has been borne by government; that I never have received, directly or indirectly, any consideration or recompence for having published them, except a fair division of the profits arising from their sale; that I was not led to compose them from the hope of emolument, or the prospect of reward, but solely and exclusively from a conscientious and disinterested desire to serve the cause, which I had espoused from principle, and from a conviction of its tendency to promote the welfare and happiness of my country.'

ART. XXV. *A cursory View of Civil Government, chiefly in Relation to Virtue and Happiness.* By Ely Bates, Esq. Small 8vo. Price 3s. in boards. Rivingtons. 1797.

THE first section of this work, written in a spirit of seeming moderation, asserts some wholesome truths, in language decently correct and easy. Enough is said of the nature of man, to temper the expectations of the reformer, and reconcile the philosopher to no inconsiderable share of misery, rendered inevitable by our formation, and the circumstances of our existence.

Our author, in his progress, shows what government cannot, and what it can do; and if this had been represented more exactly, with more truth and fairness, and greater profundity of research, we should have congratulated the public on the annunciation of a valuable and important performance. But Mr. B. is a mere party writer. That the corrupt plunderers of the community may enjoy their spoils in tranquillity, he advises to acquiescence, from the consideration that government can do little towards human happiness. Why, then, should it be paid so much for the little it can do? A government, the annual expence of which in peace must be equal to three pounds per annum upon every individual of it's population, lisping infancy and decrepid old age not excepted, should produce much good.

A government, which annually pours out the blood of thousands, does so much evil, that it ought to balance it by much good. ' But,' says the writer, ' look to the blessings of religion, and the rewards of futurity.' Idiotism, however, can tell us, that concerning religion, government can do nothing; it's rewards, it's comforts, it neither can give nor take away. Why, then, pay government for this?

The plain truth is, that government can do much good or much harm; but cannot remove every evil, or inflict it. The less it can do, the less it is worth; and the less it ought to be paid. The author, when he finds so much advantage in being under

under authority, and subjected to labour, should have some mercy upon governors, who suffer the wretchedness of not being under authority, and not being subject to labour. Under most governments, some labour too little, some too much; and the evil will never be wholly remedied. Yet all, that can be done by reform, should be done. Our author's talents are of the middle class: his book is calculated to serve the purposes of party, and the possessors of power.

S. A.

ART. XXVI. *The Principles of Government, in a Dialogue, between a Gentleman and a Farmer.* By the late Sir William Jones. Republished, with Notes and Historical Elucidations, by T. S. Norgate. The Second Edition much enlarged. 8vo. 82 pa. Pr. 2s. 6d. Norwich, March, 1797.

As far as the authority of great names is of any weight, the cause of freedom may derive support from that of sir W. Jones. He was a decided enemy to the servile doctrine of passive obedience and non-resistance; and wrote the dialogue here republished, to impress upon the minds of the common people a sense of their civil rights, and particularly to bring into open day that primeval right, which no power on earth can abrogate, of arming in self-defence, and in resistance of oppression. The publication of this piece by the dean of St. Asaph, occasioned a memorable trial at the Shrewsbury assizes, in the year 1784. It is now reprinted by a gentleman, who appears to have entered fully into the views, and completely to have imbibed the spirit, of the original author, on the important subject of politics. The piece itself, though it has excited much ferment among men who have called themselves loyalists, is nothing more than a fair exposition of the rights and liberties, which the British constitution acknowledges. 'Every sentence of this little tract,' said Mr. Erskine in his defence of it, 'if the interpretation of words is to be settled, not according to fancy, but by the common rules of language, is to be found in the brightest pages of English literature, and in the most sacred volumes of English laws.'

Mr. N. accompanies this seasonable republication with many notes, strongly, but decently, expressive of the principles of liberty. This ingenious and spirited commentator is not disposed to encourage that tame spirit of timid and unprincipled acquiescence in the infringement of the constitutional rights of Englishmen, which so strongly marks the present times. He expresses, indeed, his abhorrence of the foul and sanguinary spirit, which in France dictated the proscriptions of Robespierre; and gives it as his decided opinion, that resistance should slumber, except in cases of urgent, extreme, and unequivocal necessity: but he asserts, with the confidence of an independent spirit, and maintains with the force of an enlightened understanding, those principles of freedom, which are the only broad and firm basis of social happiness.

The performance may be read with pleasure by every one, whose ideas and feelings, on the great principles of polity, are in unison with those of the author. The dialogue is too well known to require an extract: we shall make one from the notes, on the important question of universal suffrage, in which the writer replies, p. 40,—to

‘ an argument against universal suffrage, introduced by Mr. Belsham in his memoirs of the reign of George III. namely, that if population be the sole basis of representation, and we suppose in the first place, the house of commons to consist of six hundred members; and secondly, the population of the metropolis to be one sixth part of that of the whole kingdom, that London alone would, on this principle, send one hundred members to parliament!

‘ This is certainly a very fair deduction, and if the advocates of universal suffrage acknowledge that such an effect will be pernicious, they must give up their system, or prove that it is counterbalanced by some preponderate advantage; for in an investigation of this practical importance, it is highly incumbent on us to see the complete and utmost tendency of our principles, and to trace them through their most distant and most delicate ramifications; we must not be negligent of remote and even of contingent consequences, for the sake of supporting a popular or a darling theory.

‘ This consequence, obvious as it undoubtedly is, having never before occurred, at first appeared so forcible, the representation of the metropolis so vastly disproportionate, that for a moment I was completely staggered; but a little reflection taught that this was no very formidable antagonist to encounter, and that in reality there would be no disproportion at all; the disproportion would be, not between the representation, but the things represented: between the number of inhabitants which two cities may contain, and not between the number of members they may send to parliament: in fact we are annihilating a deformity, and not creating one; at first we are astonished at the apparent undue influence which London would have with her hundred members; but if her inhabitants were dispersed in a hundred different places, and each place were to send one, the difficulty would not strike us with half the force—it would absolutely vanish; but does locality alter the nature of a principle? Why should not these inhabitants exercise the same right when collected in the centre, which they would do when dispersed over the periphery of a circle?

‘ But even this *appearance* of disproportion will be considerably diminished, if we consider a circumstance of which Mr. Belsham forgot to remind us; namely, that the number of members would be materially increased, which every other large town and city in the kingdom would send to parliament, and in an exact *ratio* to the number of its inhabitants.

‘ As to the objection that paupers pay no taxes, have no property*, and consequently have no right to legislate concerning the property of others, it is false and unfeeling; it is false, because **EVERY MAN'S LABOR IS HIS PROPERTY**; and labor, says a great character, is the wealth of nations. For every meal he eats, for every coat he wears, for every coal, for every candle that he burns, this pauper, however, pays a tax, and helps to feed that mighty monster of rapacity, the exchequer. Respecting the dependance, or the *want of will*, as

* * Blackstone acknowledges, that members of parliament are “ delegates, to whose charge is committed the disposal of” a man's “ property, his liberty, and his life.” The two latter, however, are considered as “ trifles light as air,” when balanced against property!

Blackstone

Blackstone calls it, which is supposed to be annexed to poverty, and which is urged as a reason both by him and sir William Jones, for the exclusion of such as are depressed with it, I feel no hesitation in asserting that there is infinitely more dependance, more servility, more bribery, and infinitely less excuse for any one of them, among what are called the higher, than among the lower orders of society. Few members of the house of commons will have the hardiness and effrontery to deny this assertion. As to bribery among electors, universal suffrage must give it a death-blow; no purse could possibly support it.

The objection is unfeeling, because the less a man possesses, the more does that little require extraneous protection. Wealth can protect itself; the limbs beneath a garb of fluttering cobweb rags, feel alone the rage and wantonness of the winds. Property will always have influence enough; poverty always too little. Why poison the arrow which already wounds?

Though an advocate for the universality of suffrage, I feel the force of a political aphorism, which Mr. Hume has pronounced in his "idea of a perfect commonwealth," respecting the total inadequacy of a coal-heaver or a carman to form an estimate of the political merits of two contending candidates, or to decide on the various qualifications and very extensive knowledge, necessary for the performance of senatorial functions. That plan then of representation, seems to be a good one, which like the american, rises in pyramidal proportion; let the bulk of the people, rather than nominate in person, annually choose intermediate electors, for the annual nomination of the supreme council of the kingdom. I conclude this note with the aphorism of Mr. Hume. "The lower sort of people and small proprietors are good judges enough of one not very distant from them in rank or situation; and therefore in their parochial meeting, will probably choose the best, or nearly the best representative; but they are wholly unfit for county-meetings, and for electing into the higher offices of the republic. Their ignorance gives the grandees an opportunity of deceiving them."

The delicate subject of hereditary succession is, in these notes, handled with temperate freedom; a warm tribute of deserved respect is paid to George Washington; the political character of king William III is rigorously scrutinized, in refutation of the high encomium bestowed upon it by the writer of the critique on Mr. Burke's Letters on a regicide Peace in the Monthly Review; and the mischievous consequences of standing armies are strongly exhibited in historical facts.

o. s.

ART. XXVII. *Read or be Ruined! Containing some few Observations on the Causes of the Commencement,—of the disastrous Progress,—and of the ruinous Expences of the present War; with a serious Call on the Stock-Holders in the British Funds, to forego the Receipts of a Part of their Dividends for a stated Period, as the only possible Mode of rendering their Property secure, as well as of saving their Country. Also a Plan for discharging the National Debt in 55 Years, and yet immediately ameliorating the distressed Situation of the middling, and inferior Classes of the People of Great Britain, by commencing its Operation with the Abolition of Taxes.*

Taxes to the Amount of Ten Millions per Annum. 8vo. 73 pages.
Price 2s. Jordan. 1797.

READ or be ruined! This is not a very modest title, and we confess ourselves agreeably disappointed in finding so little of arrogance in the pamphlet. The author takes a rapid glance of the causes of the commencement, the disastrous progress, and the enormous expenses, of the war. This is followed by some observations on the reputed increase of our trade and manufactures during the war, in which we find much worthy of attention, and of which our readers will think the following extracts no unfavourable specimen.

P. 32.—⁴ The taxes existing in 1791 were deficient in 1795 to the amount of *eight hundred thousand pounds*, and upwards, yet the *exports and imports* of 1795 exceeded those of 1791 by upwards of *seven millions*.—Is this a proof of the increase of our trade and manufactures?

In 1788, when we were represented to be at the height of our prosperity, the *exports and imports* amounted to *thirty-six millions*, and the customs produced upwards of *three millions*, and *seven hundred thousand pounds*; but, in the year 1795, the *exports and imports* amounted to *forty-nine millions*, yet the customs produced only *three millions*, and *two hundred thousand pounds*. Thus then we perceive that the *exports and imports* of 1795 exceeded those of 1788 to the amount of *thirteen millions*, but the customs fell short upwards of *half a million*.—Is this a proof of the increase of our trade and manufactures?

P. 33.—⁴ In 1792, a year of opulence to our trade and manufactures never to be forgotten, our *exports* did not amount to more than *twenty-one millions*; but in 1794 they leaped up to *twenty-six millions and an half*, and in 1795, to upwards of *twenty-seven millions*! But though our exports increased to so astonishing an extent, our trade to America, to the West-Indies, to Portugal,—Spain,—Italy,—Turkey, &c. diminished very seriously; while the whole of such increase, as well as an amount equal to the deficiencies to the above countries, centered in Germany. To Germany the immense increase of *exports* in 1794, and 1795, consisted of bullion, provisions, and war-like stores, sent to the emperor to enable him to butcher thousands who never injured either him, or us; and our imports, in return, have been disgrace and ruin. But neither can this be deemed a proof of the increase of our trade and manufactures.

P. 34.—⁴ The permanent taxes, in 1793, fell short of those in 1792, to the amount of *four hundred thousand pounds*:—those of 1794 were short of those in 1792 upwards of *five hundred thousand pounds*:—those of 1795 were less than those of 1792 about *eight hundred thousand pounds*:—and those of 1796 fell short of those of 1792 to no less amount than *eleven hundred thousand pounds*!

Our author next enlarges on the weight of the peace establishment should the war conclude with the year, in which he follows Morgan and Lauderdale.

Then follows a scheme for the reduction of the national debt, and lightening the burdens of the people. Here the author expects

pests the stockholder to sacrifice some temporary interest, for the security of his principal, which, we think, although not likely to be followed, is advice that ought not to be slighted. But those, who wish to see the whole of our author's plan, we must refer to the pamphlet itself.

ART. XXVIII. *The Iniquity of Banking. Part II. Containing a further Illustration of the Injustice of the Paper System, an Enquiry into the Nature and probable Consequences of the Bank Indemnity Bill, and a Plan for removing (or at least alleviating) the Evils produced by the Circulation of Bank Notes.* 8vo. 64 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1797.

IN our Review for January last, Vol. xxv, p. 87, we noticed the first part of this work, and we find the second part executed with equal ability. Much of the reasoning, which occurs in the pages before the fortieth, we do not only think unexceptionable, but worthy the attention of all our readers, and to that attention we heartily recommend it.

Upon the undeniable general principle, 'that no one ought to have a share in the productions of society, greater than in proportion to his property,' understanding the word property in it's most large and proper signification, and confining the application of the principle to such as are not properly and justly, from bodily or mental infirmity pensioners upon the community; an inference is legitimately drawn, that the maker and issuer of bank notes, which cost him no labour, and represent no property consumed, or put out of his possession, is a *public plunderer, reaping the productions of society where he has not sown*, and enjoying that to which he has no title, except the title of a *robber to his spoil*. It is fairly and conclusively shown, in these pages, that thus increasing the circulating medium, or nominal money of the country, is, in fact, reducing the relative value of it's money, and increasing the price of all commodities. That as, the quantity of money remaining the same, it's value would be increased by the increase of commodities; so, the quantity of money thus increased, it's value is diminished, and nothing but the vast increase of the commodities brought to market has preserved the money from sinking almost to no value at all. In these observations we wish to express an entire agreement with our author; but we dissent as completely from the doctrines of the latter part of this pamphlet, as we cordially assent to the principles of the former; and we cannot forbear the expression of our surprise, that they should be both written by one pen.

Our author proposes, that all the bank paper in the country should be put out of circulation; that with it all the gold and silver should cease to circulate; and that government should create a paper currency of it's own, which should be supported by all the authority of the law, and made a *legal tender* in all cases! It is assumed, to give a colour of propriety to these propositions, that gold and silver are a circulating medium, *merely by convention*. We allow, that, as a medium of exchange, they have become general by *convention*; but we deny, that they have no *intrinsic*

intrinsic adaptation to that end. They are yielded by the mines with great frugality; much labour is spent upon their production; they are portable, and adapted to easy conveyance: so that, if every commodity be valuable according to the labour spent upon it's production, which we think our author has fully admitted in his general reasoning, and which we think he has too much knowledge of the subject, and good sense, to deny; gold and silver are eminently adapted to become a circulating medium of exchange, and this adaptation invited no doubt the convention, on which their universality is built. We confess, however, they are only important and a proper medium of exchange, as *the real representatives of labour*; and we acknowledge paper would be a better circulation, if it's quantity could be limited. This, however, appears to us to be absolutely impossible; and our author has not lessened that conviction, by his scheme of prevention. The labour spent upon their produce, determines the value of all commodities: this we assume as an axiom. Paper currency can only borrow from law the impression of it's value. Law is local. The paper currency of one country can never become that of another by *convention*. It is therefore not adapted to our wants as a commercial country.

But waving this argument, every government intrusted with the creation of money will abuse the privilege. This is certain; for human nature is improvident. Private banks have illustrated this principle by their example, and have only been restrained by being obliged to find gold and silver, or, in other words, by not being protected by a tender act. Our author would limit the existence and circulation of this government paper, by obliging government to *receive it upon interest* when it's quantity became excessive. And yet the *interest is to be paid in paper*, in paper too of the government's own creation! Absurd and ineffectual as is this restraint, it is as good as the case admits. There is no alternative. A tender act will destroy all the security of exchange, and reduce us again to have recourse to simple barter; or we must have a currency of *real value*, representing *labour spent*. This alone can invite the *convention* of all nations, and fix the principles of exchange. We wish to call the attention of our readers to this subject, as one pregnant with more danger to our country than any other, and not of improbable expectation; that they may resist the first proposition of it, with indignant energy: we mean, the making *any species of paper currency a legal tender*. The moment this is done, mortgages, bonds, book debts, national stock, are involved in one common destruction, and they are all *paid off by an act of parliament*. The fruits of the labour of lives are destroyed, and every debtor is authorized in legal villainy. Englishmen! beware of this moment, that will introduce a confusion, out of which nothing less than divine power can produce *order*. When we consider the talent and knowledge this pamphlet discovers, the author must excuse us, if, unknown as he is to us, we either suspect his last propositions not to be seriously offered, or offered with no good design. S. A.

ART. XXIX. *The essential Principles of the Wealth of Nations, illustrated, in Opposition to some false Doctrines of Dr. Adam Smith and others.* 8vo. 152 pages. Becket. 1797. Price 3s.

THEY whose minds have been pre-occupied with the expediency and rectitude of the present system of taxation, which is most justly characterised in the publication before us by the epithet *chaotic*, and with the notion of a vast income arising to the state from manufactures, have expressed great surprize and astonishment at the conclusion of the *œconomists*, that the public supplies ought to be drawn wholly and directly from the rents of lands, or from the surplus produce of lands; that is, that there should be no tax but a land-tax. This doctrine has been attacked by ridicule as well as by serious argument, both on the continent of Europe, and in our island: in the former by Montesquieu, Voltaire, in his *Man of Forty Crowns*, Necker, and others: in the latter by Dr. Adam Smith, and Mr. Arthur Young.—Dr. Smith, in his *Wealth of Nations*, as our author observes, views it askance, and cautiously shoves off the discussion of it's merits in the following evasive words: “Without entering into the disagreeable discussion of the *metaphysical* arguments, by which the *œconomists* support their very ingenious theory, it will sufficiently appear, from the following review, what are the taxes that fall finally on the rent of land, and what are those that fall finally on some other fund.” On this quotation from Smith, our author makes the following just remark.—“The *œconomists* found their system of policy and finance upon the three principles of number, weight, and measure: and if we are to reckon, with Dr. Smith, number, weight, and measure, to be metaphysics *, I should be glad to know what we are to consider as physics.”

Our author having, in our judgment, proved, in the clearest manner, that the revenue of a state arises solely from the produce of it's lands; and that Dr. Smith's arguments in support of the productiveness of manufactures are altogether illusive; he proceeds also to consider a fundamental error on the part of the french *œconomists*, namely, their ranking the proprietors of land as a productive class in society; and explains a principle, founded in nature, which, when acted upon, renders the proprietors of land, not indeed a productive class, but an essential class, and the most honourable class in society. But the principal scope of the book is, to show that the produce of a state arises solely from the produce of it's lands; with the advantages, of course, of physical over pecuniary wealth, and

* This leads to a very curious and profound inquiry. As, on the one hand, we examine matter by metaphysical abstractions; so, on the other, we have not any ideas, or names, for the operations, beside those that are taken from objects of sense. Every thing is of a mixed nature. It is difficult to define what is matter, and what is mind, or mental abstraction; but on any theory the stricture on Smith is just. If matter have no real existence, all our ideas of it's qualities and properties are equally metaphysical. If matter really exist of itself, and independently of a percipient mind, solidity and extension are among it's primary qualities.

various other corollaries arising out of his main doctrine, that may be improved for the relief, the comfort, and the prosperity of the nation.

The doctrine maintained by our author, in defence of the economists, wears, at first glance, the air of enigma; but, on the perusal of this treatise, an entire conviction is produced at once of its truth and political importance. Among the various arguments and illustrations by which this doctrine is established, the following remain on our memory, after laying aside the volume, and are therefore probably among the most forcible and impressive.—While any land in a kingdom, or other state, remains to be cultivated, cultivators are better than manufacturers; for the exportation of manufactures is not so advantageous to a state as that of raw materials. No augmentation of the revenue of the society arises from the labour of a manufacturer, excepting in the case of its being sold abroad. In that case, indeed, the profit of the exporter becomes the profit of the nation where he lives. That nation, however, would be a gainer, were the labour of the cultivator to be exported rather than the labour of the manufacturer. The manufacturer produces something of value; but this at the expense of another value previously provided for him by the cultivator. The merit of the manufacturer is, that he gives a fixed and permanent value to the more perishable riches procured by the cultivator, or rather bestowed on the cultivator by nature. The labour of the manufacturer, then, is unfruitful in comparison of that of the cultivator. The cultivator, by raising subsistence, raises and supports population; and, by raising more than his own subsistence, creates annually a new fund for purchasing all the conveniences that it may be in the power of the manufacturer to produce, whether that manufacturer reside in his own parish, or ten thousand miles off.—The clear profit arising from exports of manufactures ought, as above observed, to be reckoned a gain to the nation as well as the individual exporter; but as such exports bear no proportion to the manufacturer's consumed at home, and as the exports of natural production are better than those of labour employed in manufactures it follows, on the whole, that national revenue, or wealth, proceeds from agriculture. All this reasoning is confirmed by the example of America. From this truth, which is of the very first political importance, our author, with great reason, concludes, that there ought to be no other tax for the defence of a state than a land-tax; a simplification which would be highly advantageous to the state, to the landholder, to the tenant, and to the manufacturer. In the prosecution of this, which is his general design, he is naturally led to show, that the cultivation of the territory ought to have a preference to the establishment of manufactures, not only in respect of revenue, but of morals, health, and happiness.—‘Landholders,’ says our author, ‘in both Great-Britain and Ireland, should zealously concur with their respective legislatures in adopting such measures as may spread cultivation over every valley and every hill. While a field can be found for every seeder, let every idler have a field. Houses of industry are good; fields of industry better.’

Among

Among many ingenious facts, drawn from history as well as the present state of the world, and made to bear on our author's main design with much felicity, we are particularly struck with the observation, that the charge of defending the state was laid by the Saxons, and other nations ancient and modern, on the possessors of land, as the grand condition and tenure of landed property. It continued to be so in England even in the times of Queen Elizabeth, and to later periods in several other countries in Europe. There is a recent and curious fact, of which our author, had he recollect ed it, might perhaps, on this head, have taken notice:—the emperor, Joseph II, among other changes, introduced, or rather attempted to introduce, for the defence of the state in the war with Turkey, a land-tax into the kingdom of Hungary. The nobility murmured, and opposed its effectual establishment; and were even indignant, that any other mode of defence should be deemed necessary, than what had been adopted by their ancestors.

The views and sentiments of this writer appear to us to be so fair and friendly to mankind, as well as so wise in respect of political economy, that we should think it our duty to recommend them very particularly to public attention, if we had not on many occasions declared our hearty approbation of them. See particularly our Retrospect of the Active World for April last, and our Review of Mr. Sullivan's Tracts on India, in our last volume. B. B.

ART. XXX. *The Speech of a Patriot King to his Parliament.* 8vo.
19 pages. Price 6d. Debrett. London.

THAT this, alas! unreal speech, contains a great deal of philanthropy and sound good sense, our readers will be convinced from the following address to the 'Gentlemen of the House of Commons,' which we extract from it.

P. 13.—' The objects which will call for your attention are of such magnitude that I am at a loss to trace their outlines. Bankruptcy stares us in the face, and the nation is so overloaded with taxes, that a limit must inevitably be put to the present deleterious system. Something must be done for the reliefs of the people, who will not, who ought not, tamely to bear the ills accruing from a mass of debt, entailed upon them by the malversation and villainy of their rulers. On the other hand, in this cruel dilemma, what is to be done for the creditors of the state? This is truly a matter which challenges the sublimest efforts of your combined labours. Perhaps some ingenious method of composition may be devised, to extinguish the interest gradually, as it would create a tremendous concussion to wipe it off at once. It will also be proper, (although the discrimination will be nice and difficult) to make a distinction between the honest well-intentioned state creditors, and those harpies who have become so for the purpose of stock-jobbing and villainous speculation, to profit by the distresses of a falling country. Much also may be expected from the suppression of useless pensions and places, and the reduction of enormous salaries, not the rewards of industry and virtue, but of venality and corruption. For myself, what money I have personally amassed during my reign, it belongs to my people; and I freely give it back to them. I recommend a complete abolition

tion of all monopolies and chartered companies. Why should any set of men enjoy privileges distinct from their fellow-citizens? I am well aware it will be argued, that these prescriptive rights serve as a barrier to the undue power of the crown; but I presume it will be found on investigation, that haughty and tyrannical themselves, they have always, instead of diminishing, helped to increase it's influence; witness their cringing addresses on all occasions to me, whilst under the dominion of prejudice, and blind to my genuine interests. The security of the country ought to depend on the fundamental principles of the constitution, the sacred equality and upright administration of the law, not on party spirit and intrigue.'

ART. XXXI. *An Inquiry into the present Condition of the lower Classes, and the Means of improving it; including some Remarks on Mr. Pitt's Bill for the better Support and Maintenance of the Poor: In the Course of which the Policy of the Corn Laws is examined, and various other Branches of political Economy are illustrated.* By Robert Acklom Ingram, B. D. Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 102 pages. Debrett. 1797.

POLITICAL science is so important to the interests of society, that it seems entitled to a much larger share of attention in education, than has hitherto been allowed it in our public schools. This study might well supply the place of many others, which are now become obsolete or superfluous. We remark with pleasure, that the subject of political economy begins to attract the attention of the members of our universities; and we introduce the present pamphlet to the notice of our readers, as a promising foretaste of the benefit which might be expected to accrue to society, if this subject were made a principal branch of academical instruction.

The ingenious author of this publication takes a wide scope, and treats, not superficially, on various important topics. In the present state of society, he justly remarks it as a great evil, that increasing opulence in the higher classes is the result of a continual subtraction from the comforts of the lower orders. As powerful remedies for this growing evil, and efficacious means of producing a less unequal distribution of wealth, and consequently a surer prospect of internal peace and tranquillity, he recommends the reduction of the rates of profit, the restriction of the luxurious and wasteful consumption of produce, and the imposition of burdens on the consumption of foreign productions. On the difficult subject of finance Mr. I. maintains, that the proper object of taxation is that part of the income of a nation, which remains after replacing it's capital with the accustomed profit of trade: he, accordingly, proposes an increase of taxes on articles of luxury, and suggests a plan for imposing the principal burden where it ought to lie, on landed property.

The next subject which our political economist discusses is, the reduction of the price of provision. The effect of the present corn laws on prices is distinctly and ably examined, and shown to be injurious, by giving encouragement to farmers for the benefit of foreigners, rather than of our own country, and a free corn-trade with temporary restrictions is recommended. Numerous expedi-

ents

ents are proposed for restraining superfluous consumption, and increasing the quantity of produce.

Supposing the condition of the poor meliorated by the rise of wages, and by lowering the price of provision, the author, in order to excite in the common people a desire of accumulation, proposes, that the distribution of property be facilitated and encouraged, by altering the laws of inheritance; that societies be instituted to give the poor an opportunity of securing, and employing their savings; that provision be made for their instruction; and that, by a gradual alteration of the poor laws, they may have less encouragement to idleness in the expectation of parochial relief. The pamphlet concludes with some ingenious observations on agriculture and population.

M. D.

ART. XXXII. *Outlines of an Attempt to establish a Plan for a just and regular Equivalent for the Labour and Support of the Poor, and to reconcile the Weights of the Kingdom to one Standard, by connecting them with the Copper Coinage.* 8vo. 68 pages. Price 2s. Debrett.

1797.

IT is with infinite satisfaction, that we announce so many valuable publications in behalf of the poor, and we can assure our readers this work on the subject well deserves the public attention.

The author's plan, for the relief of the poor, is twofold: the first part consists of a new mode of paying for the labour of the poor; the second, the reducing the weights of the kingdom to one standard, and connecting them with a new copper coinage.

He wishes it to be ascertained how much wheat, or other grain, is sufficient for the support of a labourer's family; for all the necessities of life bear an accurate proportion to the price of grain.—This done, our author would have a law passed, which should enable the labourer to demand his wages, either in grain or money. This would, no doubt, prevent the injury he now sustains, by the eternally varying value of money; be productive of much benefit, and no possible evil.

The author would next have all false coin suppressed, and a new copper coinage issued, and he would have forty-eight of the new halfpence issued for a shilling. The weights to be reduced to one standard, and the *weights to be coined*. Thus would the labourer be freed from continual losses and imposition by counterfeit copper, and have in his possession legal *weights*, by which he could detect, with ease, the impositions of tradesmen. Various objections occur to the author to the execution of his plan, which, however, he meets with fairness, and answers, we think, conclusively.

The style, in which these important observations are written, is easy and correct, and, although the author is entirely to us unknown, we suspect it flows from a pen not unaccustomed to composition. May that pen never sleep, till something is accomplished, for the relief of the largest portion of society, whose sufferings cry to heaven, and must soon move the earth.

It was to this pamphlet we referred in our Rev. for July last, p. 91; the reference there made to vol. xxiv. was an error. S. A.

SCHOOL BOOKS.

ART. XXXIII. *L'Art de parler et d'écrire Correctement la Langue Fran-
çaise, &c.*—*The Art of Speaking and Writing the French Language
correctly, or a new Grammar of that Tongue, for the Use of Foreign-
ers, who are desirous of being thoroughly acquainted with its Principles
and Genius.* By the Abbé de Levizac. 8vo. 308 p. Boosey. 1797.

FROM the vast number of french grammars, which have lately issued from the press, we think it our duty to single out the work before us, as particularly worthy of attention. It's merit indeed has been respectfully acknowledged by some of the most eminent french journalists. Peltier in particular hesitates not to affirm, that nothing has yet appeared, on the french language, so clear, so methodical, and so complete, as this grammar. The testimony of Montlosier is equally favourable. The author certainly seems to possess a critical knowlege of his native tongue, with a happy talent of communicating his ideas in a natural, perspicuous, and impressive manner. He thinks correctly, and writes with precision. The grammar, in common with others, contains the etymology, orthography, and syntax of the language; but the principles are elucidated with an accuracy peculiarly logical and scientific. The last three chapters, in which the author discovers a considerable share of taste and discernment, are employed in explaining the nature and use of the grammatical figures, and in treating of galli-cisms, and in the application of the principles and rules previously illustrated to that sublime passage in Racine's *Phedre*, in which is related the death of Hippolytus. The grammar being written in french, is designed for those only, who have acquired a tolerable knowledge of the language, and are able to construe it without the aid of a master. To those, who are desirous of becoming critically acquainted with the principles of the french tongue, this grammar will prove a valuable acquisition.

ART. XXXIV. *The Rational Guide to the French Tongue: Containing
Tables, calculated to teach the Order of the French Syntax: Together
with a Treatise for attaining the idiomatical French Elegance; and
Rules for learning the Language without Disgust, and for speaking it
with Facility. Part II. A French Plaidoyer between Five young
Ladies contending for a Prize; in the Course of which the French
Syntax is elucidated, the Idiom discussed, the true French Accent demon-
strated and distinguished by appropriate Signs.* By B. Calbris, A.M.
12mo. 362 pages. Debrett. 1797.

THE author of this french grammar professes to lessen the labour, diminish the difficulties, and relieve the tedium of grammatical learning. We do not perceive any particular advantages for accomplishing these ends in the plan of this grammar, or anything in which it excels former publications of the same kind, unless it be, that some of the idiomatic elegancies of the french language are, perhaps more distinctly than usual, pointed out in the second part, in which the rules respecting syntax and idiom are thrown into the amusing form of a dialogue, or trial of skill, between five young ladies. This dialogue, being written in french, cannot be of much use, till the learner has made some progress in the language.

guage. The grammar seems to require the assistance of the author, or some french teacher, to render it perfectly intelligible and useful to the english scholar.

ART. XXXV. *The Principles of English Grammar; with critical Remarks and Exercises of false Construction: adapted to the Use of Schools, and private Tutors.* The 4th Edition. 12mo. 144 pa. Price 1s. 6d. Vernor and Hood. 1796.

THIS english grammar, which has hitherto escaped our attention, may deserve notice, on account of the concise form, into which it has brought whatever is most necessary to be learned in this subject by young people; and on account of a very useful list of *improper expressions*, chiefly gathered up from conversation, given with the corrections. It's principal defect is, that it adheres too closely, in it's method of declining nouns and conjugating verbs, to the forms and terms of the latin grammar. We have on former occasions remarked, that we do not think the use of *exercises of false construction*, of which many are given in this grammar, a judicious method of teaching grammatical accuracy: it tends to confound the learner, and to retard, rather than promote, the habit of correctness.

ART. XXXVI. *English Exercises, adapted to the Grammar lately published by L. Murray: consisting of Exemplifications of the Parts of Speech; Instances of false Orthography; Violations of the Rules of Syntax; Defects in Punctuation; and Violations of the Rules respecting Perspicuity and Accuracy: designed for the Benefit of private Learners, as well as for the Use of Schools.* By Lindley Murray. 12mo. 187 pages.

A Key to the Exercises, adapted to L. Murray's English Grammar. 12mo. 147 pages. Price of the Exercises, without the Key, 2s., with the Key, 3s. York, Wilson; London, Darton and Harvey. 1797.

FOR a particular account of the very useful english grammar, to which these exercises refer, we must request our readers to turn back to Rev. vol. xxiii, p. 646. The value of that work is greatly increased by this large collection of examples, under the heads above mentioned. They are selected with great judgment, and very happily adapted to the purpose of correcting *common* errors in writing and speaking; they afford the learner a large field of employment, which, carefully gone through, either in writing or orally, will not fail to produce a habit of attention to accuracy. The key will, sometimes, perhaps, be useful in assisting the teacher's judgment, or oftener, in enabling a young person to become his own instructor. We could easily find passages, in which we should not perfectly agree with the author in his corrections; but, in criticism, there must be diversity of opinion; and to pick out a few faults, in a work which has cost the author much pains, and which bids fair to be very useful, would be invidious. With respect to the matter, as well as the language of these examples, we are much pleased with the author's choice: both vulgarity, and peculiarity of sentiment, are judiciously avoided.

ART. XXXVII. *Mental Amusement; consisting of Moral Essays, Allegories, and Tales, interspersed with poetical Pieces.* By different Writers: now first published, calculated for the Use of private Families and public Schools. Small 8vo. 138 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Sacl. 1797.

THIS miscellaneous little volume, if it have nothing very striking to recommend it, may be profitably perused by children, who will see the advantages of morality and virtue displayed in an amusing manner.

D. M.

ART. XXXVIII. *Recueil de Fables, de Contes, et d'Histoires, &c.—Collection of Fables, Stories, and Histories, moral and entertaining, for the Use of young People who study the French Language; translated from the best English Works of the same Nature.* 24mo. 196 pages. Peacock. 1796.

IN the preface we are informed, that the present translation was undertaken by the advice of an english lady, who considered, that children will be more interested in perusing a story, which, perhaps, they already know, dressed in a foreign language, than one which is totally strange to them, both in respect to incident and diction: in the former case, they have also an opportunity of comparing the different modes of expressing the same idea, which prevail in the two languages. The collection is judicious, and the translator has expressed himself in an easy unidiomatic manner.

D. M.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. XXXIX. *Truth for the Seekers; or, a fair and full Statement of the Facts, which gave rise to the Imprisonment of the Quakers now in York Castle.* 8vo. 24 pages. 6d. Jordan. 1797.

WE were glad to hear that Dr. Markham had at last appealed to the public, in defence of his injured honour; and we took up the pamphlet with the hope of seeing every imputation upon his conduct in this far famed cause done away, by a fair statement of undeniable facts. We are somewhat disappointed. He indeed asserts, that he took every method to obtain an amicable settlement of the matter in dispute, before he appealed to the exchequer; but, although he states, that the magistrates were reluctant to engage in the business in the first instance, we fear, and we are induced to fear, by the statement itself, the doctor had not been 'slow to wrath,' or had he zealously attempted to obtain the decision of the neighbouring justices. This pamphlet is written in the spirit of resentment, and with all the fury of zeal. We do not think the quakers ought to be exempted from the payment of tithes, until the law frees us all from that burden. But they plead conscience, and the Scriptures, which we allow to be divine, in a case not very dissimilar, offer to our consideration an awful question, 'Who art thou that judgest another man's servant?' How then is the rector or vicar to obtain his support, that support on which his family depends? The answer is at hand. By applying to the neighbouring magistrates,

magistrates, and putting the quaker to the *least possible expense*. Thus may *justice* and *charity* be united. It belongs to Dr. M. to show, that, on his part, this was *bona fide* endeavoured. We fear the present pamphlet will not satisfy the public on that head; and if the statement it offers be false, we have no doubt it will be replied to, by some able pen. It is the duty of the quakers to see that this is done; a duty they owe to the public and *themselves*. We rejoice to find, that Dr. M. has not been countenanced, as was suspected, in this prosecution, by the archbishop of York, or by any of the heads of the church. They appear with clean hands. The doctor appears angry with every body—with all who govern and are in authority both in church and state.

May church and state long excite the resentment of violent men, and prove, by a wise moderation, their title to support. This zealous champion of our hierarchy describes the quakers every way odious and despicable, as men, ‘ who, under a cloak of tender consciences and simplicity of manners, conceal a very high degree of pride and selfishness; of pride without dignity, and selfishness without disguise.’ We confess we are at a loss to discover how they can conceal, under a cloak, *selfishness without disguise*. S. A.

ART. XL. *Exile of Major General Euftace, a Citizen of the United States of America, from the Kingdom of Great Britain, by Order of his Grace the Duke of Portland, Minister for the Home Department, &c.* 8vo. 48 pages. Price 2s. Jordan. 1797.

GENERAL Euftace, after boasting that he was one of the founders of american liberty, tells us, that he has been exiled from this country, in consequence of being suspected to be the author of a pamphlet, published some time ago in France. He accuses the duke of Portland of equivocation, and seems to think, that Mr. King, the american minister, did not interfere with sufficient dignity in his behalf.

ART. XLI. *A fair Statement of real Grievances experienced by the Officers and Sailors in the Navy, with a Plan of Reform. In a Letter to Mr. Dundas.* By a Naval Officer. 8vo. 60 pa. Price 1s. 6d. Bell. 1797.

THE plan of this author is to new model the sea service, by giving pay in more equal proportion to the rank of the officers, and rank in more exact proportion to the service required and performed.

He would have a totally new arrangement take place in respect to the distribution of prize-money; and so far from thinking his ideas are immoderate or unjust, in favour of subordinate officers and seamen, we think his plan is still not equitable, and the inequality and disproportion he would preserve too great. He wishes also for the institution of a naval academy. We think his observations just, and deserving the attention of the board of admiralty: they appear to us useful as far as they go, and important, as leading to some plan still more just and honourable.

ART. XLII. *A Letter from a Naval Officer to a Friend, on the late alarming Mutiny on board the Fleet.* 8vo. 33 pages. Price 1s. Murray and Highly. 1797.

THE writer of this letter, who, although he assumes the character, does not affect the language of a 'naval officer,' thinks, that the sailors 'had a pre-disposition to mutiny,' but that 'the exciting cause came from a different quarter.'

This however is a gratuitous insinuation, wholly unsupported by any thing in the shape of proof.

ART. XLIII. *A Letter to the Tars of Old England.* Third Edition. 8vo. 15 pages. Price 3d. Debrett. 1797.

THIS is a remonstrance to the navy, written like the former, in consequence of the late mutiny at the Nore.

The author asks 'the tars of old England,' if they mean to convert their 'wooden palaces' into 'the dens of disloyalty, disorder and death.'

'Your mistresses,' adds he, 'will desert you! Where is the honest hearted girl who will trust a sailor *false-hearted* to old England? Your wives will blush for you! your children will be ashamed to follow a profession which their fathers have disgraced! you will more than *bastardise* them.'

ART. XLIV. *A Letter to the British Soldiers.* Second Edition. 8vo. 15 pages. Price 3d. Debrett. 1797.

IN this very flattering address to the army, which is here praised for it's unshaken loyalty, the sailors are said to be 'worse than the pirates—the monsters of the sea.'

ART. XLV. *An Account of the Commencement and Progress of sinking Wells at Sheerness, Harwich, and Landguard Fort, for supplying those Dock Yards and Garrisons with fresh Water.* To which is annexed, the Correspondence between the Master-General of the Ordnance, and the Commanding Engineer of those Places, (Sir Thomas Hyde Page,) upon the Subject, in the Years 1778, 1781, and 1783. 8vo. 42 pages. Price 1s. Stockdale. 1797.

THE first attempt to sink a well, on the parade at Sheerness, failed, in consequence of the double frames employed on that occasion. The second, which was made soon after in fort Townshend, luckily succeeded. The process commenced june 4. 1781, and the whole was finished july 4. 1782. At the depth of 300 feet from the top of the well, a piece of a tree was found; at 328 feet, sand and clay, with some water, were discovered; and at 330 feet deep, upon boring, the whole bottom of the well blew up, it being with great difficulty the workmen escaped the torrents of water, which was mixed with a quicksand, that rose forty feet from the bottom of the well. The water rose, in six hours, 189 feet, and in a few days, within eight feet of the top of the well. It has since been carefully analyzed by a chemist, and found perfectly good for every purpose; and, it is presumed, the quantity will be equal

to every demand of public and private use at that place; there having been, ever since it was discovered, a constant drawing, and the water has not been lowered more than 200 feet. It is proper to remark, that the water is of a very soft quality, and upon being drawn, has a degree of warmth unusual in common well water. It remains yet to be determined whence this warmth proceeds; but as it is proved wholesome, the circumstance is fortunate for the troops of the garrison; and they will not be so liable to the complaints that are frequent among troops, (as often happens at Dover castle), arising from the use of very cold well water.

The wells at Landguard fort were begun and finished in the year 1782.

The wells at Harwich were begun on the 6th of May 1781, and finished on the 29th of September of the same year.

Sir T. H. Page, who displayed great skill, ingenuity, and perseverance, on the above occasion, laments, that the navy has not yet received all the benefit that might have been expected from the well at Sheerness; but surely he has lived too long in the neighbourhood of Rochester and Queenborough, not to guess at the reason.

s.

ART. XLVI. *Essays on various Subjects: in which some Characters of the present Age are introduced.* 12mo. 93 pages. Low. 1796.

IN a short advertisement, the author tells us, that he does not presume to announce brilliancy of composition, but trusts that the morality of his essays, and the friendly admonitions which they convey in plain language, will produce instruction, not unaccompanied with amusement. These essays contain but little either to censure or commend; there are thirteen of them, on the subjects of Life, Friendship, Happiness, &c.: some occupy three duodecimo pages, some four. They are not unlike the themes of a schoolboy.

ART. XLVII. *Thoughts on different Subjects, chiefly Moral and Political.*

By R. M. C. Part the First. 8vo. 87 pa. Price 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.

THERE is so little of originality or information in these 'thoughts,' that it is simply necessary for us to announce, that they are embodied in the form of a pamphlet. If those which are to constitute the second part have no better claim to commendation than the present, perhaps the author had better content himself with diffusing them among a fire-side circle in conversation, than submit them in print to the inspection of the public.

p. M.

ART. XLVIII. *A Review of the Conduct of the Prince of Wales, from his Entrance into Public Life, till his late Offer to undertake the Government of Ireland.* 8vo. 109 pages. Price 2s. Lee and Hurst. 1797.

THE author has engaged in a task, which he himself allows to be herculean. Many parts of the conduct of the noble personage alluded to are supposed to stand in need of justification; and they are here ably, if not successfully, palliated.

ART. XLIX. *Hints to Fresh Men, from a Member of the University of Cambridge.* The Second Edition. 12mo. 32 pages. Price 1s. White. 1797.

THIS very useful and smart little piece has been noticed in our Rev. Vol. xxiv, p. 24. We are glad to see it reprinted, and wish it in the hands of all *fresh men*, in the city, as well as in the universities. It now appears with the signature of P. S. Dodd. Magd. Coll. S.

ART. L. *A short Argument on the Administration of Oaths, endeavouring to show that it is an essential and unalienable Prerogative of Sovereignty.* 8vo. 19 pages. Price 6d. Beckett. 1797.

WE learn the object which our author had in view, from his title-page: it is fortunate, for we might otherwise have been puzzled to have discovered it amidst such a pompous parade of syllogistic reasoning and logical deduction, as is here most pedantically introduced. In proof that the prerogative of administering oaths, which is solely attached to sovereignty, has been usurped, we are referred to the report of the committee of secrecy of the Irish house of commons, reported May 10, and to the recent disaffected state of the navy of Great Britain. Oaths are, in both instances, considered as the cement of rebellion, and our author recommends the interposition of the legislature, to invest the executive authority with "vindictory powers," adequate to the offence of receiving or administering an oath, unsanctioned by the sacred authority of the king!

It would be an insult to the understanding of our readers, should we attempt to point out the weakness of supposing, that the legislature can possibly prevent any body of men from swearing fidelity to each other, and allegiance to any common cause in which they may be engaged. The power, which could have prevented the mutineers at the Nore from taking an oath of fidelity, could at once have prevented the mutiny; and the power which could not prevent the mutiny, would have been idly employed in preventing the oath of fidelity. D. M.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

In this article of our review for last month, p. 208, observations on Mr. Patton's letter, a numerical error of the press occurs. Fifteen hundred must be substituted for fifteen thousand, the number of men constituting the lowest class of voters, where the highest class consists of only three men, on the new scheme of representation published by Captain Patton.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

MEDICINE.

ART. I. Leipsic. *Beschreibung der physiologischen und pathologischen Präparate, &c.* Description of the physiological and pathological Preparations in the Collection of Aulic Counsellor Loder at Jena, by J. Val. H. Köhler, M. B. &c. Division I. 8vo. 118 p. 1794.

Descriptions of diseased parts, when accompanied, as here, with occasional information respecting the cases in which they occurred, are by no means without their utility in the art of physic. This division contains the diseased bones. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ART. II. Stendal. *S. G. Vogels—Kranken-Examen, &c.* The Examination of the Sick, or general philosophico-medical Inquiries for the Investigation of the Diseases of the human Body, by S. Theoph. Vogel, M. D. &c. 8vo. 355 pages. 1796.

We find here no dry pedantic conversation between a physician and his patients, in question and answer, but a semeiotic and philosophical investigation of all the appearances, that enable a physician to form an accurate judgment of a disease. This is conducted with the greatest circumspection, minuteness, and precision; yet in a pleasing and agreeable manner, which is rendered still more interesting by the occasional introduction of remarkable cases from the author's own practice. We can recommend it both to the young physician and the old, and even they who are not professional men will find it entertaining. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ANATOMY.

ART. III. Halle. *J. Chr. Reil, M.D. &c. Exercitationum anatomicarum Fasc. I. &c.* Anatomical Essays, N° 1, on the Structure of the Nerves, illustrated by three Plates, by J. C. Reil, M. D. &c. Fol. 34 pages.

Prof. R. has examined the nerves with great care, principally by means of maceration. He has employed the nitrous acid to dissolve the coats of the nerves and expose the medullary part, which it hardens; and by means of lixivium he extracts the marrow from the tubes, which he afterwards fills with air or quicksilver, and dries. He intends to examine the brain by similar methods. The work is elegantly printed; the plates are executed with great care, and the performance, when complete, will no doubt be valuable.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

MANUFACTURES.

ART. IV. Hanover. *Über die Bleyglasur unserer Töpferwaare, &c.* On the Glazing of our Pottery with Lead, and it's Improvement, by J. F. Westrum. 8vo. 189 pages. 1795.

Much

Much has been said of the danger of employing lead, or litharge, in the glazing of pottery for kitchen utensils, and Mr. W. was much prejudiced against it, when he instituted a set of experiments for ascertaining the point. From these it appears, though not wholly innocent, less noxious than had been asserted. That its use might be dispensed with, Mr. W. made various experiments on different substances recommended for glazing pottery, but with little success: yet what he has done may be of great utility in abridging the labours of others.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

MORAL PHILOSOPHY.

ART. v. Leipzig. *Annalen der bürgerlichen Tugend, &c.* Annals of Virtue in common Life, or Facts for the Improvement of the Heart and Mind. 8vo. 240 pages. 1792. Collection the second. 259 pages. 1796.

Among the innumerable collections of this kind we know not one equally calculated to answer the end proposed.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

CLASSICAL LITERATURE.

ART. vi. Leipzig: *Αριστοφανος Κωμωδιαι, &c.* The Comedies of Aristophanes, corrected on the Authority of a valuable Manuscript of the tenth Century, by Ph. Invernizi. To which are added critical Remarks, Greek Scholia, Indexes, and Notes of the Learned. 2 vols. 8vo. 1246 pages. 1794.

The ms., from which this edition is little more than a copy, is of some value, as it is perhaps one of the most correct and complete existing. It supplies several chasms, and rectifies several passages; but the greatest advantage derived from it is the correction of the metre, particularly in the chorusses. In this respect the merits of Brunck appear very conspicuous, as the frequent agreement of the ms. with his conjectural emendations is wonderful: in this point no one except Dawes can be named after him. The remarks of Mr. I. are beneath criticism: they were written in great haste, and, as appears from his own preface, merely for the sake of the copy-money.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

TRAVELS.

ART. vii. Berlin. *Neue Reise durch Italien, &c.* New Travels through Italy, by Fred. Schulz. Vol. I. Part I. 8vo. 256 p. 1797.

Notwithstanding the number of travellers in Italy, this tour, by the author of a Livonian's Journey [see our Rev. Vol. xxiv, p. 334], of which it is a continuation, may afford both information and amusement.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

BIOGRAPHY.

ART. viii. Augsburg. Mr. Veith, who we are informed died last year, has published six more alphabets of his Augsburg Bibliotheca

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theca [see our Rev. Vol. II, p. 103, and Vol. XXII, p. 336,] which conclude the work.

ART. ix. Erlang. *Monument für meinen Vater, &c.* A Monument for my Father. The Life of J. Mich. Georg, late Director of the Royal Prussian Regency at Bayreuth, one of the most industrious Men of our Time, by Fred. Adam Georg, Ph. D. 4to. 160 pages. 1797.

We have here another instance, to add to those already extant, of the power of talent to raise itself, by the help of persevering industry, from the lowest condition, amid the most difficult circumstances. As a proof of Mr. G.'s activity, his son informs us he wrote above sixty folio volumes on cases of law, during the ten years of his being in the regency: and these the government thought of sufficient value to appropriate to it's own use, though without paying his family even the expense of pen, ink, and paper. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

NOVELS.

ART. x. Berlin. *Wilhelmine, &c.* Wilhelmina, a History in two Volumes, by J. F. Junger. 8vo. About 500 pages. 1796.

The events of this novel are such as might be supposed to occur in real life, and are well calculated to caution women, who would wish to be happy, against forming an attachment to a man on account of a handsome figure. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

POETRY.

ART. xi. Breslau. *Die Gesundbrunnen, &c.* Mineral Waters. A Poem in four Cantoes by Valerius Wm. Neubeck, M. D. 4to. 87 pages. 1795.

In didactic poetry, which among the moderns the English have cultivated with particular success, the Germans have little to boast. The present poem, however, if it contribute to the health of it's readers, while it affords them pleasure, will do more for it's author, as it will consign his name to posterity. The true spirit of poetry pervades the whole; various ornaments, to which this species of writing is particularly adapted, are happily introduced with classical taste; and every thing mean and disgusting connected with the subject is avoided with great judgment. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

FINE ARTS.

ART. xii. Dresden. *Briefe über die Kunst an eine Freundin, &c.* Letters to a Lady on the Arts, by Jos. Fred. Baron Racknitz. Parts I and II. 4to. 132 pages. 13 plates. 1796.

The skill of baron R. in the fine arts is sufficiently known, and these letters are well calculated to impart to female readers a general knowledge of the arts, and improve their taste.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART. xiii. Breslau. *Der Torso, &c.* The Torso. A periodical Publication dedicated to ancient and modern Art by C. Bach and C. F. Benkowitz. Vol. I. 4to. 202 pages with plates. 1796-7.

The

The plan of this work, of which six numbers make a volume, is so well formed, and the execution so satisfactory, that we wish it the zealous support of all the friends of the arts. The beginning of each number is appropriated to instructions for drawing, which evince the hand of an able master. Another interesting subject is the description and delineation of pieces of architecture or sculpture, either designed or already executed. A third part consists of instructive and entertaining essays and anecdotes, relative to artists or the arts.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ENGRAVING.

ART. xiv. Zurich. *Handbuch für Kunstliebhaber und Sammler über die vornehmsten Kupferstecher, &c.* The Amateur and Collector's Manual of the principal Engravers and their Works, from the Commencement of the Art to the present Time, arranged Chronologically and in Schools, compiled from the French Manuscript of Mr. M. Huber by C. C. H. Rost. Vol. I. 8vo. 359 pages. Vol. II. 399 pages. 1796.

This will be found a very useful publication. The first two volumes are occupied by the german school, and contain upwards of a thousand names of artists, with an account of their lives, and principal works. At the end we find an index, and the signatures of all the old engravers; and prefixed is a concise review of the books which the author consulted.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

EDUCATION.

ART. xv. Augsburg. *Le Monde corporel représenté en 360 Figures, &c.* The corporeal World displayed in 360 Figures in Copper-plate, with Explanations in French and German, calculated to teach Children the Names, Qualities, and Uses of such Things as come before their Eyes. By J. H. Meynier. Sm. 8vo. 174 p. 1796.

This is a very useful little book, adapted to the capacities of children, and well contrived to teach them things as well as words, while it gives them instructive exercises in a foreign language.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART. xvi. Copenhagen and Lubec. *Beyträge zur Veredlung der Menschheit, &c.* Essays for the Ennobling of Mankind, published from the Institution for the Education of Youth at Copenhagen, by O. J. R. Christiani, German Preacher to the Court. Vol. I. Nos. I—IV. 8vo. 516 pages. 1796.

If Mr. C. were not already known to fame as a man born for the education of youth, and qualified with every necessary talent for the purpose, this periodical publication would prove him to be so. After considerations on the principal object of education, and an account of the institution mentioned in the title, follow various essays, connected with the subject, by Venturini, Marezoll, Mr. C., and others; all of which are valuable, and calculated for the diffusion of knowledge in an enlightened age.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

FOR THE
ANALYTICAL REVIEW,
FOR SEPTEMBER, 1797.

A
RETROSPECT OF THE ACTIVE WORLD:

OR,

A GENERAL REVIEW OF DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS,
AND PRACTICAL CONTROVERSIES, AND CONTESTS.

HAVING in our last number made our observations on the present state of agriculture, we go on, according to our plan, to discoveries and inventions in the arts, whether mechanical, or chemical, of direct or contingent importance.

Mechanical. Mr. Maunsel, of Clifton, in the county of Somerset, near Bristol, has invented a horizontal windmill, upon principles entirely new, for grinding corn, and various other purposes. From the description given of this invention, it would appear to have greater power than windmills on the common construction, as well as to be more easily managed, and capable of working in a greater variety of wind and weather.

Mr. Robert Blair, surgeon in the royal navy, has invented a method of improving the refracting telescope, and other dioptrical instruments. The indistinctness of refracting telescopes, with single object glasses, appeared to Mr. Blair to arise principally from the unequal refrangibility of the rays of which light is composed, which prevents their being converged by refraction to one point. After a great variety of experiments, Mr. Blair discovered a dispersive medium, which separates, by it's refraction, the several kinds of rays, either exactly in the same proportion in which they are separated by the refraction of crown glass, or more nearly in that proportion, than they are separated by flint glass.

Mr. Mark Noble, of Lambeth, in the county of Surry, has invented a pump for raising water; which, it seems, may be worked with uncommon ease. The uses of water are so many and various, that this invention, simple as it may appear, is of great importance.

Conradus Shiviers, of Hoxton, in the county of Middlesex, D.D. and Mr. Isaac Blydesteyn, of Harp-lane, Tower-street, London, have invented a machine on a self-moving principle. This machine, (though perpetual motion on mechanical principles may be demonstrated from the friction of matter to be impossible,) we have been assured, will continue in motion, for weeks, and even months together. Two wheels, the one within the other, are erected on two uprights, or stiles, and move on the same axle. Metal balls, taken

taken up by the motion of the wheels, force them round and round again, by their weight, as they fall, in constant succession.

Mr. James Sadler, of the city of Oxford, engineer, has invented an engine for lessening the consumption of steam and fuel, in steam, or fire engines, and also gaining a considerable effect, in time and force.

Mr. Joseph Kirkpatrick, of the Isle of Wight, has invented an implement for transplanting turnips; for an account of which, we must refer our agricultural readers to the letters and papers of the Bath and west of England Society for the encouragement of agriculture. From the simplicity and cheapness of this instrument, and the very easy manner of using it, it may become generally useful. As it frequently happens in turnip fields that large spots fail, it is used for filling up those spots from the adjoining parts of the same field; where they may be thinned, at any rate, to advantage. It may also be useful in gardens, for transplanting plants of different kinds.

Mr. Fulton, of the city of London, has invented a machine, or engine, for conveying boats or vessels, and their cargoes, to and from the different levels in and upon canals, without the assistance of locks, or the other means now known and used for that purpose. This machine, we fear, is too complicated to be considered in the light of a real practical improvement.

Mr. Thomas Clifford, of the city of Bristol, has invented an entirely new mode of manufacturing nails of every kind, by machinery never before made use of for that purpose.

Chemical. Major Pratt, of the county palatine of Durham, has invented a method of making a composition-stone, which will answer every purpose served by the mill-stone at present used. As this compost, when moist and soft, might be made to assume any form by being put into proper moulds, or otherwise, it might be converted, in the major's opinion, to the purposes of ornamenting buildings, or other uses to which stucco is applicable, and would, probably, prove more durable.

Mr. Thomas Henry, of the literary and philosophical society of Manchester, has made several ingenious experiments and observations on ferments, and fermentations; the result of which was, that fixed air, or aerial acid, is the exciting cause, as well as the product of fermentation: or, in other words, that the properties of yeast, as a ferment, depend on the fixed air it contains; and that yeast is little else than fixed air enveloped in the mucilaginous parts of the fermenting liquor.

Mr. William Redman, of Salisbury, tin-plate worker, has invented a portable kitchen for roasting, boiling, or baking any kind of provision, in any room, or in the open air, without the assistance of a common fire-place, and which may be moved from place to place, at pleasure. This mode of dressing meat does not seem calculated to improve its flavour. But it may be found convenient, in many cases, to those who are blessed with the sause of the antient *perhans**, and to whom it may be an object to save fuel: for

* Hunger. Xenoph. *Cyropædia*.

this machine is so constructed as to roast and boil, or do either separately, with a very small quantity of fire. A portable kitchen, for the same purpose, but differing, perhaps, in some points in it's construction, was advertised by a tinman in Chiswell-street, eight or ten years ago.

Certain very curious facts have been lately discovered, and published in the *Journal des Sciences, des Lettres, et des Arts*, which point out a method of increasing the effects of gun-powder; and show also the necessity of certain precautions in loading fire arms. The effects of gun-powder in mines have been found to be very much increased by leaving a considerable space between the powder and the wadding. The person who made this discovery was led to it by the consideration that a musket or fowling-piece is very apt to burst, if the wadding be not rammed close.

Mr. S. Bentham, of Queen-square, Westminster, has invented a new method of performing and facilitating the business of divers manufacturing and economical processes. His invention consists in the idea of applying to the purposes of art and manufacture, in the large way, the practice so long in use, of extracting and excluding the air, in the way of philosophical experiment.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

THOSE who have perused our speculations on the course of late political occurrences, as we ventured to give them to the public in our last retrospect, will not find them discredited by the events of the present month.

The civil war, which many expected as the necessary result of the late contest between the directory and councils of France, has not taken place. We stated, that the first could not happen in the present times, unless the territory and finances of France were divided under opposing authorities; and we observed, farther, that if force were to crush the majorities in the two councils, the robespierrian system could not succeed, it's machinery having been broken with the plate of the assignats:—that devouring and confiscating finance could no longer avail itself of the youthful rage of the people for liberty, to cover it's destruction of their property; and that it could not, therefore, any longer operate in the revolution, as the agent of public credit. The party, that has succeeded to power in France, has not passed to it, as formerly, through blood. It had to trust for the means of continuing the war, and it's own authority, not to assignats, but to the contributions of the people.

The people, on their part, will now begin to inquire into the advantages which they gain from their system of representation. Their representatives will, in their turn, look to their own eventual security; and it is under such trials, that the french constitution, if ever, is to receive solidity and duration.

The directory have endeavoured to justify their own violent proceedings, by an appeal to the french nation, and an accusation of their opponents, as violators of the constitution, and conspirators for the restoration of royalty. That question is entirely domestic and relative to France: and the less that it is agitated by foreign nations,

nations, the more they will be found to attend to their own interest, and indeed to favour the cause of the unfortunate loyalists. The directory, as was to be expected, have attempted, by the documents which they have published, and their proceedings towards lord Malmesbury, to insinuate a charge of interference on our part in support of the royalist party. This was so obvious a policy, on the part of the enemy, that we were extremely anxious, in our humble sphere, to induce our government to espouse a system by which that imputation might be precluded. We wished the basis of peace to be avowed by the representatives of the nation, and to be announced by them, in support of his majesty's gracious declaration from the throne in his speech to parliament. We dwelt on the spirit of Mr. Pollen's motion in April: and various circumstances led us to declare our opinion, in our last retrospect, 'that judging from the past, and weighing maturely the appearances of the day, we were apprehensive that lord Malmesbury, though he might have made some progress towards peace, would not conclude it *definitively*, but in a *third mission*.'

Yet the return of his lordship does not alarm us, as it seems to have done our exchange financiers. That return was accompanied by circumstances eventually productive of peace. We have read the list of **NEW TAXATIONS**, sent by the directory to the council of five hundred: not only what they call *direct* contributions (upon lands and persons) but *indirect* taxes upon articles of use, and convenience of life.

Two nations, paying respectively such multiplied contributions from their industry, for the purpose of carrying on a war destructive of their common prosperity, are not doomed, in our opinion, to wage it long, without clearly ascertaining its object. We avoid an inquiry into the origin and policy of the war. But certainly to restore monarchy by force of arms, is now found to be impracticable. While we prepare with vigour for the prosecution of war, let a solemn renunciation of all future interference in *support of the cause of royalty in France* prepare the way for peace; let us be prepared for hostilities, but display still a more ardent, as well as a nobler desire of reconciliation and concord: in imitation of divine goodness, which, according to the observation of one of the christian fathers*, 'draws its bow that it may not shoot, and whets its sword that it may not strike.' Such sentiments and designs, communicated and re-echoed from shore to shore, might tend, even without the formality of negotiation, to at least an armed truce, which would terminate in formal pacification. Did we not renounce, after a long, an expensive, and a fruitless struggle, the support of royalty in our colonies, in America? Let us examine the origin, progress, and conclusion of the dispute between the mother country and America in the last war; compare the account of these with that of the contest between Europe and France in this: and we shall have a practical developement of the system, which shows how commerce heals the wounds of war, and public credit redraws hostile nations under its common protection.

* St. Chrysostom.

Our investigations of this subject have received much light from the books which have been lately published relative to the transactions of India. The publications of sir W. Jones, in particular, and the pleadings in parliament, connected with the trial of Mr. Hastings, have elucidated, though not in a systematic manner, the state of civilization in Asia; and we see with admiration, how much the sagacity of our countrymen has discovered of what may be useful in politics as well as commerce, in a land which was unquestionably the cradle of both. It is the *Saucer system of finance* to which we allude, the origin of that which, as noticed in our last, was introduced in the 15th century into Europe. The ideas that we have collected on that system, with it's various bearings, and happy effects on society in the east, at this day, we shall throw together in a future number: as it is an object, not only of great curiosity, but also of political importance and imitation.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

A rich portuguese fleet of merchantmen has fallen into the hands of the french: but it is not yet known, whether the period of it's capture preceded or comes within the term of the pacification.

ITALY.

IT is to this celebrated peninsula, that has so often given law, and decided the fate of Europe, that every eye is now turned, since the rupture of the negotiation in the Netherlands. Are there any terms by which it is in the power of the directory to detach the emperor from Great-Britain, and induce him to make a separate peace with the french republic? The extension of his dominions might only serve to rouse the jealousy, and provoke the attacks of his neighbours, and of none readier than the french, at some future period; when, at peace with Britain, and all the world, they should be at liberty to bend their undivided force against the austrians. It would, therefore, be very shortsighted policy in the court of Vienna, and such as it's conduct hitherto does not lead us to expect, to conclude peace on any other terms than what should include Great-Britain. But, if a separate peace should be made, still difficulties and dangers of a new kind, and equal at least to those involved in war with the austrians, might arise to the directory. If the armies should be disbanded—the armies particularly of Moreau and Buonaparte, great schools of politics as well as war; so great a number of politician soldiers, returned within the bosom of the country, would mingle their sentiments and interests with those of the people, and infuse a spirit not to be controlled by the present usurpation. If they should be retained in pay, for invading Britain, or on any pretence, but in reality for the purpose of supporting those who support and even pamper them, at the expense of the people: in this case the directory would soon experience the usual caprice and insolence of janizaries and pretorian bands, who know their power, and rise constantly in their pretensions.

The conclusion to be drawn from these observations is, that we ought not to despair, or even to be at all dejected, though there undoubtedly is high reason for vigilance and unanimous exertion. So circumscribed is our view of futurity, that he is the wisest politician,

tician, who does not attempt to prepare and control future, but endeavours only to improve present scenes and recent events. It is equally unwise, on the other hand, to enter into the mazes of intrigue; it is nobler and better to mount up to general principles, which control accidents by supposing and comprehending them; to watch occurrences with patience, and to act by general maxims. The political order in France, with all its foreign dependencies and connections, is not, considered as one system, more solid and stable than the confederation for re-establishing monarchy. Let us at last wisely contract our force, defend ourselves, and take advantage of every favourable opportunity, not for waging wars of ambition, but maintaining the independence, and promoting the comfort and strength of the nation.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

THE turkish empire, by all accounts, seems to be in the situation of the mogul empire, when the great officers of state and governors of provinces began to assume independence on the court of Delhi. The pacha of Scutari has made certain overtures for an alliance with the new cisalpine republic.

GERMANY.

IN Germany there are, in fact, but two independent powers, the austrians and prussians; whose leading system, for some time, has been, to maintain a balance between them by making up for any encroachment on one part, by one, where it might be conveniently made on the other; so that if the emperor could be tempted to make a separate peace with the directory, by the spoils of Venice, the king of Prussia would dart out his talons in some other quarter.

NORTH OF EUROPE.

Is it possible that the northern powers can longer refrain from taking some measures for coercing, within some reasonable bounds, the new and great republic? There is a difference between this and interference in their internal affairs.

GREAT BRITAIN.

THE safe arrival of a large fleet from the West Indies is a fortunate event. A fleet, too, is expected about this time from India. We have only to protect our trade, to guard our coasts, to avoid profusion, to cultivate our soil; not to oppress, but to protect and cherish the labouring poor*; to simplify, if possible, the collection of taxes, and to be united in patriotic wisdom and virtue.

* This subject has happily drawn the attention of several able writers; but a small error crept into our Retrospect, p. 97, relative to the proposal for 'paying labourers, at their option, in corn, &c.' The valuable treatise, to which we there alluded is, 'Outlines of an Attempt to establish a just and regular Equivalent for the Labour and Support of the Poor,' &c., of which an account will be found in p. 303 of this number.